The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 7, 1892.

The Week.

THE country has received with supreme satisfaction the news that the Senate has ratified, by unanimous vote, the treaty with Great Britain by which the Bering Sea dispute is referred to arbitration. The arbitrators, in addition to those appointed by the United States and Great Britain (two by each), are to be appointed by France, Italy, and Sweden (one by each). Thus there will be seven in all, and a majority will decide each question, and the decision will be binding on the United States and Great Britain, but not necessarily so on any other country. The main question is the fifth in the list of questions to be passed upon, viz.:

"(5.) Has the United States any right, and, if so, what right, of protection or property in the fur seals frequenting the islands of the United States in Bering Sea when such seals are found outside of the ordinary three-mile limit?"

The other questions to be brought before the Court of Arbitration are mostly, if not wholly, historical or geographical. They may all be decided in our favor without affecting the fifth or main question at all. The terms of the *modus vivendi* pending arbitration have not been fully made public, but they seem to be based upon the idea that damages shall be paid by the losing party. This ought to be satisfactory in principle. There may be some embarrassment in carrying out the details, but there is no longer any danger of "tension" between the two countries. For this we are duly thankful, and we shall not examine too closely the terms of Mr. Wharton's despatch of March 22, which seemed to negative any plan for a *modus vivendi* on the basis of reciprocal payment. The country will now dismiss the subject from its thoughts and cares. Not one person in ten thousand ever really cared whether the seals were taken on the islands or in the open water, or whether they were taken by Americans or by British Columbians.

In the recent silver debate in the House, Mr. Bartine of Nevada contributed a new idea, being a sort of amendment to Gresham's law that where two kinds of money coexist, the poorer always drives out the better one. Referring to a fact which the silverites have at last been compelled to take notice of, namely, that France did *not* have a concurrent circulation of both gold and silver during all the seventy years from 1803 to 1873, Mr. Bartine said:

"Not one single piece of silver coin was ever 'driven' from France. *It was drawn out by commercial currents.*"

If Mr. Gresham were alive, he would probably snap his fingers at the distinction here made between driving and drawing. He would say that the order of its going made no more difference to him than it did to *Lady Macbeth* when she told her guests not to stand upon their order, but go at once. But to one who looks upon silver as an abused female (as no doubt Mr. Bartine does), it makes the greatest difference whether she was gently coaxed out of *la belle France* or driven with a bludgeon. And as we all know that the French are the politest people in the world, we must conclude that when they got rid of their silver, they used no unnecessary violence. Instead of clubbing silver out of their country, as ruder people would have done, they offered an inducement (of say 1½ per cent.) to other nations in order to create a "commercial current" in which silver could sail cheerily all the way to India if she were so inclined.

No other State in the Union illustrates the transitory nature of the free-coinage craze so well as Kansas. Two years ago the Republicans of that commonwealth seemed to have lost their heads on this question. Both of the Republican Senators and five of the seven Republican Representatives voted in Congress for free coinage. The Republican State Convention heartily sustained their position, adopting the following resolution:

"The practical operation of the Silver Act now in force, recently passed by a Republican majority and opposed by a Democratic minority in both houses of Congress, in rapidly increasing the value of silver, is a good step in the right direction, but *we, the Republicans of Kansas, demand free coinage of silver*, a measure strongly opposed and vigorously denounced by the late Democratic Administration, led by ex-President Grover Cleveland."

Less than two years have passed since this resolution was enthusiastically adopted, but a despatch from Topeka says that "at present four-fifths of the Republicans are opposed to free coinage," and the State's delegation to the National Convention will sustain the President who in 1890 was condemned for his opposition to free coinage.

A change of the same sort as has already occurred among the Republicans of what used to be called "the banner Republican State of the Union," is coming over Southern Democrats. The chief strength of the free-coinage movement, in the West and South alike, has been the fact that Kansas, and all that part of the country, was suffering two years ago from "hard times," and that the low price of cotton still prolongs a similar condition of things in the South. The farmers have wanted more money, and the free-coinage advocates assured them that they would get it if Congress would only pass, and the President would sign, a certain bill. As long as the politicians of both parties cultivated this delusion, and nobody seriously disputed the claim, it was natural enough that it should be generally accepted. But discussion makes short work of any delusion. It is only necessary to ask a question or two, and its folly is exposed.

Mr. Lodge's bill providing for a new international monetary conference and for a suspension of silver purchases by the Government meanwhile, betrays the uneasiness felt in the Republican party over the present Silver Law. The Democrats, partly by blundering and partly by set purpose, have got themselves into a position of determined hostility to that measure, which they call the Sherman Silver Law. They opposed it unanimously when it was before Congress. The majority opposed it because it did not go far enough in the direction of silver, the minority because it went too far. But the effect of the vote was to put the party squarely against it, so that the State conventions subsequent to its passage felt bound to pass resolutions against it. Now that the Bland Free-Coinage Bill has been put out of the way and is no longer a terror, the public mind turns to the existing law, and people begin to ask how long this purchase of seven tons of silver bullion per day can continue without bringing us to the silver standard. While the Bland Bill was darkening the horizon, nobody saw the other thing; but now everybody sees it, and the saying of Mr. Lodge's colleague, Congressman Williams, that "the Democrats have done all the threatening and the Republicans all the mischief," is likely to cut some figure in the campaign this year. But Mr. Lodge's bill will not pass. We shall go into the Presidential campaign buying seven tons of silver bullion per day. That will be the silver-producers' share in the protective tariff.

There is a very mistaken notion, in some financial quarters, that the decline in silver bullion prices has been caused by speculative operations in this country. The truth of the matter is that all sensational operations of the kind, during the last two years, have been efforts to advance the price. The "bull movement" in silver in the summer of 1890, for instance, when the price was put up on the New York Stock Exchange to $1.21 per ounce, was as clear a piece of manipulation as the old-time "rigging" of Erie or New York Central stock. The end of the 1890 experiment was disastrous, and all the frequent attempts since that time to excite the public into speculation for a rise have had a similar origin and a similar result. If there has been any market speculation in silver since the collapse last year of the last of these

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efforts, it has been done by the London bullion brokers, and been merely a shrewd "working" of the market to take advantage of the constant overproduction; nor have even these operations been of a permanent character. If the English silvermen put the price down, it was only for the purpose of checkmating the American pools and buying at an advantageous price the silver needed for India. Two months ago the agents of our largest smelting works, apparently more far-seeing than their friends in Congress, gave up even the effort to hold back their surplus product, and, throwing it all on the market, started the decline which culminated on Monday week. In other words, the break in silver prices is as true a reflection of trade conditions as the break in the price of iron. In the one case as in the other, overproduction tells the whole story. The silver-producers played for a higher stake, and, in consequence, strained far more recklessly their producing capacity. It is not strange, then, that the reaction in their case should be the more severe.

The London *Economist* of March 26 mentions the shipment of £1,500,000 gold to Austria by the house of Rothschild. The Berlin correspondent of the *Economist* says that the Disconto-Gesellschaft of that city, in conjunction with the Rothschilds of London, has undertaken the Austrian gold loan, about which there has been so much talk lately in connection with the resumption of specie payments, and that fifty or perhaps one hundred million florins will be issued in April or May. The fact that Austria-Hungary is to pass from the silver to the gold standard at no very distant period seems therefore to be settled. Then Russia will be the only silver-standard country in Europe; but as she is still on a paper basis, the question of the standard is of no greater importance than it was with us in 1873. In India the silver crisis is severe. The savings of the natives are mostly in the form of silver coin or silver ornaments—the coin being changed into ornaments, and the ornaments into coin, on the same principle as money is deposited in savings banks and drawn out again in this country. The natives do not perceive the decline in silver until they have to buy something with it, and then it takes the form of a rise in the prices of commodities. The greatest difficulty in India lies in the fact that the land taxes are collectible in silver rupees, and that the rate cannot be raised without danger of producing a revolution. When the British East India Company came into power there as the successor to the native rulers, it found existing a system of land tenure by virtue of which the holder paid a fixed rent to the Prince, and neither he nor his heirs could be disturbed so long as they paid it. This system has run on to the present time. The Indian cultivator could not be made to understand the reasons for raising his rent. Consequently the Government is helpless. Its own expenses rise as the purchasing power of the rupee falls, but it cannot recoup itself by raising the land rent.

The Democrats of Minnesota met at St. Paul Thursday to appoint delegates to the National Convention at Chicago, and instructed them "to vote as a unit for, and to engage every manly endeavor to secure, the nomination of Grover Cleveland as the candidate of the Democratic party for President of the United States." It also passed some resolutions on the silver question which call for attention, since they may point the way to a solution of the silver question in its political, although not in its financial, aspects. The resolutions were these:

"We hold, in accordance with the traditional policy of our party, to the use of both gold and silver, and the sole coinage function of the Government is to examine the relative values of the metals of coinage, as established by the commercial world, and, if there has been a sufficient fluctuation in the value of either to make the existing ratio unequal, then to readjust the ratios, so that the number of grains of either metal in the unit of coinage, the dollar, shall be equivalent in value, and then to permit the free, unrestricted coinage of both metals.

"We join the Democracy of New York in demanding the repeal of the Sherman Silver-Coinage Act. We condemn this act as an attempt to distract the friends of honest bimetallism, and denounce it as calculated to debase our currency, contract the circulating medium, and wreck the confidence and safety of the business world."

No silverite ought to object to the first resolution. Mr. Bland and Senator Stewart and all of their followers contend that free coinage would bring the two metals to a parity and keep them there, so that we should actually have bimetallism, and not merely the single silver standard, with gold demonetized and selling at a premium. The Minnesota Democrats say in substance: "Then you cannot object to making the silver dollar commercially equal to the gold dollar. If, upon the adoption of free coinage, silver should *not* advance to $1.29 per ounce (it is now 86 cents), we merely ask that you shall put enough metal into the dollar to make it worth a dollar. Then we will join you. Then you may have coinage *ad libitum*. This is the real dollar of the fathers."

We say that this may be the political solution of the silver question. It offers a common standing-ground to the factions of the party. The fact that we cannot make a silver dollar that will *continue* to be of the same value as the gold dollar (neither more nor less), is no reason why we should not have it in our platforms. We have been making fools of ourselves on this subject so long that it is only a question of greater or less folly, and we think that the Minnesota resolution is the very least folly that we shall be likely to get in any national platform this year. The chief value and importance of the Minnesota Convention, however, is to be found in the challenge it gives to the snap delegation from New York. The doctrine that no candidate can be nominated without the delegation of his own State—a doctrine that makes any single State more powerful *ad hoc* than all the others taken together—this undemocratic doctrine the men of Minnesota have trodden under their feet as did those of Rhode Island and of North Dakota a few days or weeks earlier. It is certain that the Democrats of Wisconsin, of Michigan, of Nebraska, and of Missouri will set their heels upon it. It is probable that those of Indiana, Illinois, and Iowa will do likewise, and long before that time the snap delegation of New York will be begging for mercy.

The House did a disgraceful thing on Monday in passing, with only forty-two dissenting votes, a bill which proposes to abrogate the existing treaty between China and the United States, and to prohibit absolutely the coming into the United States of Chinamen, as well as those who are now here and may hereafter leave, except those who may come as diplomatic representatives or agents of the Chinese Government. Vigorous speeches against the measure were made by Mr. Hitt, an Illinois Republican, and Mr. Hooker, a Mississippi Democrat. Mr. Hitt said that the bill was a cold-blooded proposition to abrogate a treaty—a thing unparalleled in the diplomatic history of nations—and for perfidy of expression could not be exceeded by language. The most insulting proposition of the bill, Mr. Hitt thought, was the provision which permitted the Chinese to "attend the World's Fair under guard." But such protests were of no avail when it was a question of catering to "the-Chinese-must-go" demand of "the Pacific Coast vote," and the bill was passed by more than four to one. It is believed that the Senate will not consent to so gross a piece of demagogism, but it is a reproach to the national reputation that such a measure should have passed one branch of Congress.

The investigation of the Pension Bureau is piling up evidence that this branch of the Government, disbursing about $130,000,000 a year, is conducted in a scandalously partisan and corrupt manner by Commissioner Raum. The most convincing testimony to this disgraceful state of things is furnished by Mr. Raum himself, in his answers—and his even more significant refusals to answer—to the questions which are put to him. During Thursday's session he admitted that for all practical purposes the Pension Bureau was a political machine run in the interests of the Republican party. Here is an extract from the proceedings:

"Question—If you found that examiners in the field were using their places to aid the Democratic party, what would you do?

"Answer—Call them in. I always give preference in every way possible to Republicans

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because this is a Republican Administration. I am in my position because I am a Republican. I never assign men to the field without knowing their politics. I want only Republicans."

Mr. Harrison must now perceive what a sad mistake he made in refusing to remove Raum a year ago. His management of the Pension Bureau is the worst blot upon the record of the Administration. It recalls the Grant days of the Robesons and Belknaps and Babcocks. Worse still for Harrison, he has been repeating that worst of Grant's blunders in refusing to remove a corrupt official "while he is under fire." If Raum had been discharged, as he ought to have been, a year ago, and a good man put in his place, the scandal would have been forgotten before this time. As it is, the whole thing is kept before the public, and Mr. Harrison suffers for it. Apparently he has concluded to shoulder the load through his canvass for reëlection. This shows an extraordinary lack of shrewdness—or can it be true, as Raum himself has hinted, that he has such a "pull" that the President of the United States does not dare to remove him, no matter what is proved against him?

The prompt way in which the French have disposed of the Anarchist dynamiters shows the virtue there is in grasping the nettle firmly. Before the police were fairly roused there was some danger of a panic in Paris, owing to the popular belief that there was a powerful body of fanatical Anarchist conspirators diffused through the city, with whom society could not make terms, and who could not be successfully watched, and from whom an incalculable amount of damage to persons and property might still be expected. As soon as the police went vigorously to work, however, this theory was rapidly exploded. The chief of the Anarchists was found to be an ordinary criminal named Ravachol, who had already committed many murders and robberies, and, instead of being fanatical, was simply ferocious. The other sixty to seventy were apparently as easily frightened as any other malefactors, as easily discovered, arrested, and expelled from the country or held for trial. The *Temps*, which has examined the situation rather minutely, estimates the total number in Paris of avowed and recognizable Anarchists at 200, but these 200 claim to have behind them about 3,000 others in all ranks of society. It is, of course, opposed to Anarchist principles to have an organization of any kind which would control individual action, and they meet in "groups" for discussion, but all explosions are carried out by one person only. They have had several organs, such as *La Révolte*, the *Père Peinard*, *L'Insurgé*, and *Le Conscrit*. At one time the "Groups" had names, such as "the Batignolles Panther," "the Flat Feet," "the Gunshot," and the "Wolf's Cubs"—somewhat like our "Plug Uglies" and "Bloodtubs" of long ago. Their creed is very simple—that property ought to be divided equally; that there ought to be no government, or at all events no government composed of the bourgeois class; and that anybody who objected to this ought to be blown up.

The legal precautions in France against the illicit manufacture of explosives are very minute and stringent, but the facility with which explosives can be compounded or stolen has made these precautions of little value. The manufacture is permitted only to licensed companies, giving heavy bail for obedience to the law, and submitting themselves to incessant official inspection. Any one who wishes to purchase an explosive must give his name, address, and calling; the use he proposes to make of it; the day on which he will use it; the place in which he will keep it, and the route he will follow in transporting it from the factory. But, as the *Temps* points out, what is the use of all this, as far as anarchy is concerned, when every miner or quarryman who uses dynamite, can, by secretly putting aside a cartridge or two now and then, soon accumulate a considerable stock, of which the authorities will know nothing? The true means of safety seem to lie in the close observation of suspicious characters by the police, who, as a general rule, are pretty sure to be aided by the owners of the houses in which they meet. The trouble with explosives is that they may go off in the manufacture, and everybody who lets rooms or buildings, however much he may sympathize with anarchy, feels uneasy if he thinks they are being compounded on his premises. Still, there is no doubt that a new and formidable weapon has been put into the hands of the criminal and the fanatically discontented.

At a meeting of the General Court of the Bank of England on the 17th ult., Mr. Lidderdale, the Governor, presented a statement of the present phase of the Baring liquidation. The whole amount of liabilities assumed was £30,000,000. Of this sum £22,000,000 was in existence at the time of the crisis, October 31, 1890, and £8,000,000 was incurred subsequently. Against this sum there has been received from the assets and dues of the house £23,000,000, leaving £7,000,000 due to the guarantors. The securities held against this liability consist of £5,800,000 Argentines, £2,000,000 Uruguayans, £924,000 South Americans other than those mentioned, and miscellaneous assets amounting to £1,546,000. Respecting the character of these assets Mr. Lidderdale would express no opinion except that, in his judgment, the guarantors would get out without loss. He did not think that the time had yet come for forming a syndicate to relieve the Bank of its responsibility. The debt needed to be reduced a good deal lower before such a step would be practicable. The court then declared a half-yearly dividend of 5 per cent. on its £14,000,000 capital, out of the earnings of the past six months, and carried £25,000 to the "rest" or surplus fund. From this it appears that the business of John Bull has not gone to the dogs yet. The Baring rescue and salvage is probably the greatest feat of its kind ever undertaken and carried through since the world began. The extent of the ruin that would have followed an actual failure and protest of the Barings' paper is almost unimaginable.

The Buenos Ayres *Standard* has been making some valuable exposures of the inflated character of Argentine statistics of foreign commerce. It shows that the official valuations, both of imports and exports, have been greatly exaggerated, the former by about 50 per cent., and the latter by 20. Thus, sugar has been valued for the past three years by the customs authorities at $190 the ton, while its actual price in the Buenos Ayres market has averaged only about $80. Kerosene has been assessed at eighteen times its real commercial value. The same inflation, though in a less degree, has been practised in the case of many other imports, so that the paper cited maintains that the official figures of imports for the past three years ought to read $249,500,000 instead of $373,500,000, as officially declared. In like manner it analyzes the statistics of exports, showing how the Government figures for them are too great by $64,000,000, for the past three years. All this goes to show how the Argentine bubble has been blown up all around, and at the same time furnishes a new warning against putting implicit confidence in official figures relating to commerce.

The present anomalous position of the Brazilian President is seen from a glance at the provisions of the Constitution and the election laws bearing upon his status. The Constitution provides (Article 42) that in case a vacancy occurs in the Presidential office during the first two years of a Presidential term, the Vice-President succeeds only temporarily, and a new election is to be ordered. According to the new election law, promulgated on January 26, this new election is to be ordered within three months from the time the vacancy occurs. It seems clear that President Peixoto is subject to both these provisions of the law, and yet he has shown no disposition whatever to comply with them. Some of his friends maintain that the exceptional circumstances under which the "vacancy" was created—by the navy's deposing Fonseca—make it unnecessary to apply the strict letter of the law. We should think a safer defence for him would be that as Congress when it adjourned voted him "plenary powers," he is thereby authorized to be both law and Constitution unto himself. At any rate, that is what he appears to think.

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A CAMPAIGN FOR PRINCIPLE.

A GOOD many political observers in various parts of the country are greatly surprised at the sudden revival of Mr. Cleveland's prospects as a Presidential candidate, and are seeking reasons in explanation of it. We think they will find them in his speech in Rhode Island on Saturday, and especially in such sentences of it as these: "Splendid achievements await those who bravely, honestly, and stubbornly fight in the people's cause"; and "Demonstrate to the people the merits of your cause and trust them." That has been his political creed from the beginning of his public career to the present moment. He acted in accordance with it when, as Governor, he vetoed the five-cent-fare bill, and ran the risk of being denounced as the friend of the railway corporations rather than the friend of the people. He acted in accordance with it when, as President, he vetoed the Dependent Pension Bill, and, above all, when he issued his famous tariff message. He acted in accordance with it again when he wrote his letter against free silver coinage in February of last year.

On all these momentous occasions he put his trust in the people and in their capacity to recognize the justice and honesty of the cause for which he was fighting. In each instance the politicians declared that he had ruined himself politically, but time has shown that he was a shrewder politician than they, for he has to-day a wider and more enduring popularity than any other citizen of his time. His kind of politics is that described by Lowell in his definition of a statesman: "He is not so much interested in the devices by which men *may* be influenced, as about how they *ought* to be influenced; not so much about how men's passions and prejudices may be utilized for a momentary advantage to himself or his party, as about how they may be hindered from doing a permanent harm to the commonwealth. He trains himself to discern evils in their causes that he may forewarn if he cannot prevent, and that he may not be taken unawares by the long bill of damages they are sure to bring in, and always at the least convenient moment."

The great revival of Democratic faith in Mr. Cleveland, which is now sweeping all opposition before it, is due to the fact that he has made it his constant political practice to show his party and his countrymen what they ought to do rather than what they might do. More than any other public man of his time, he has sought to hinder his party from doing a permanent harm to the commonwealth. It is because he has done this that the whole country believes in his honesty and fearlessness—believes he would do right in every emergency, no matter what the personal cost might be.

If any man doubts the value of the service which Mr. Cleveland has done his party by his course, let him read the resolutions which the Democratic Conventions of Rhode Island, Minnesota, and other States are adopting as they are sending their Cleveland delegations to the National Convention. He will find therein the kind of material which begets lasting enthusiasm in a Presidential canvass. They are not empty and meaningless declarations, but pledges to sustain an honest man, and to sustain him in upholding principles which are of vital interest to the prosperity and welfare of the country. There is no dodging or "straddling" necessary, because the whole country knows exactly where the candidate stands now and where he will stand if he is elected. The American people do like an honest man as well now as they ever did, and they do like to be trusted to take the honest, patriotic view of all public questions.

No man ought to realize the truth of all this to-day more forcibly than David B. Hill. He has been trying to succeed in obtaining a Presidential nomination by precisely opposite methods to those pursued by Mr. Cleveland. Surely his "long bill of damages" has been brought in "at the least convenient moment." He sought only to find the "devices by which men may be influenced," and they have all failed him. The grand final result of all his labors is to set him before the country as a politician without principle, the leader of a band of political brigands who have been detected in stealing control of a Legislature, and have been exposed and denounced for that crime by the leading lawyers in their own political party. In fact, Mr. Hill has, by his conduct, succeeded in bringing out to public view a class of voters whose existence was, till within the past few weeks, generally questioned—that is, independent Democrats who hold the honor of their party so high that they do not hesitate to censure and repudiate leaders who commit crimes in its name and for its supposed advantage.

The enthusiasm with which the Democratic masses are flocking to Mr. Cleveland's support is undoubtedly increased by the sense of relief which they all feel at the failure of the Hill conspiracy to prevent his nomination. If Hill had not started his garroting expedition against the party, there would have been no question of Mr. Cleveland's renomination. Hill's failure simply means the collapse of the most formidable effort that can be made to prevent Mr. Cleveland's candidacy, and the reaction which is now so apparent and pervading in all parts of the country is the natural result. The party feels not only that it is going to have the candidate of its choice, but that it is going to save its self-respect and enter a campaign with its head erect and its conscience clear.

LEGISLATOR AND CONSTITUENTS.

THE Keokuk *Gate City*, an Iowa Republican newspaper which discusses public questions with independence as well as intelligence, questions the justice of our statement that "the Republicans in Iowa have finally decided to stand by prohibition." It holds that the action of the Legislature was not the act of the Iowa Republicans as a party, but was the vote of so many legislators from so many prohibition districts who had been elected upon the pledge to the voters of their counties that they would stand by the prohibitory law, and who could not have been elected if they had not so promised. It admits that a few of the Republicans who voted against the bill were personally in favor of local option, but it says that they had assured their constituents that, no matter what their personal views were, they would stand by the Prohibitory Law.

The *Gate City* proceeds to discuss the wider question of the relation between legislator and constituents. Among other things it says:

> "Certainly it will not be maintained that candidates for the Legislature should promise their constituents one thing and then go to the Legislature and do the precisely opposite thing. No one should want to make politics and legislation a matter of open falsehood and debauchery like that. But for the position taken by the Republican candidates for the Legislature in the fifty-four districts that elected Republican legislators, the Republicans would not have carried the Legislature. That is a perfectly patent fact to any one here in Iowa, whether he is a Prohibitionist or anti-Prohibitionist. And there was nothing for those legislators so elected to do but to keep their word."

The question here raised is not a new one, but it is always full of interest. It is more than a question of good faith. It involves the whole matter as to the proper relation of the legislator to his constituents, the extent to which he shall turn himself into a mere machine to record their opinions (or their supposed opinions) at some time in the past, the degree to which he shall be conceded the right to exercise his own discretion as to what is the best thing for the community. It is a question which has just been raised in Congress over the Silver Bill, and it is a question which is sure to come up periodically in the future.

It is by no means a one-sided question. It is something more than whether a man ought to keep a pledge. To take an illustration which will make plain the wider issue involved: in 1890 a popular craze in favor of the free coinage of silver swept over the country, afflicting the Republicans hardly less than the Democrats. The Republican State Convention in Indiana, Harrison's own State, adopted on the 10th of September, 1890, a resolution which "cordially commended the action of the Republicans in Congress on the subject of silver coinage," condemned ex-President Cleveland for having "strongly opposed all legislation favorable to silver coinage," denounced the Democrats in the House as foes of silver because "the law recently enacted was passed in spite of persistent Democratic opposition," and commended this law as "*a long yet prudent step towards free coinage.*" The Republicans of Iowa the same year came out in favor of free coinage as the ideal towards which the Government should move as rapidly as possi-

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ble. Their platform, adopted on the 25th of June, 1890, contained this plank:

"We are in favor of such an expansion of the currency as will meet the growing demands of the increase in population and trade, and offset the contraction resulting from the continual withdrawal of the national-bank circulation. That to this end we favor such legislation as will utilize as money the entire silver product of our mines, and we favor such laws as will aid in the ultimate unrestricted use of both of the precious metals as money."

It was upon such resolutions that the Republicans of Indiana and Iowa ran their candidates for Congress in 1890, and such of them as were elected may be held to have pledged themselves to carry out these resolutions by their votes. That is to say, according to the *Gate City's* theory, when a bill looking toward free coinage comes before Congress in 1892, Republican representatives from Indiana and Iowa are bound to vote for it, because in 1890 their constituents commended the Silver Bill, then just passed, as "a long step towards free coinage," and instructed them to "favor such laws as will aid in the ultimate unrestricted use of silver as money." According to this theory, all that the Representative in Congress has to do when any question comes up is to try and find out what his constituents thought (or thought they thought) about it two or three years before, and then vote accordingly.

This does not seem to us a rational conception either of "the popular will" or of the Representative's obligations to his constituents. It requires any fleeting craze which gets possession of a convention to be regarded as the deliberate and final verdict of the people—which is a gross injustice to the people. The party managers who constructed the Indiana and Iowa Republican platforms of 1890 thought that the nation was bent upon the ultimate free coinage of silver, and that the popular thing to do would be to fall in with this supposed popular demand. They were badly mistaken. There was far less sentiment in favor of free coinage then than they thought, and there is far less now than there was then. The Republicans of Indiana and Iowa in 1892 are obviously and overwhelmingly against any further step towards free coinage, and the Congressman from either of those States who had voted last week according to the platform of 1890, would have misrepresented his party.

Of course nobody at this distance can judge correctly whether there has been any material change in the attitude of Iowa Republicans towards prohibition since last summer, when the State Convention declared in favor of it, but it certainly looks as though there had been. Many Republican newspapers which formerly supported the policy have come out in favor of dropping it. Three Republican Senators voted for the Local-Option Law when it was before that body, and, as we understand it, they claim that they find their action endorsed by a large proportion of the party in their respective districts. If there were enough Republican Representatives to pass the bill in the House who believed that their constituents now favor it, they ought to have made it a law, according to the narrow theory of simply representing the opinions of their constituents at the time they were called upon to vote.

But the truth is, that no right-minded man will accept the commission of Representative or Senator if he is only to record the popular will. His first duty is to do what he believes to be best for the interests of the State. If a member of the Iowa Legislature thinks in March, 1892, that, in view of the conditions now existing, the passage of a local-option law would promote the cause of good morals, he ought to vote for it. The man who wins the enduring respect of his constituents is the man who votes against their prejudices, or even their convictions, if he thinks he ought so to vote. The greatest name in the history of Iowa is that of James W. Grimes, and the reason is because—at a crisis in the history of the Republic—he, a Republican Senator, had the courage to vote, at the dictate of his conscience, against the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, when 99 out of every 100 Republicans in Iowa demanded that he should vote for it.

MORE LIGHT ON THE BRAZILIAN TREATY.

WHATEVER may be the truth in regard to some of the assertions of the London *Times's* Buenos Ayres correspondent, in his despatch of Thursday last, cabled anew to this country, there can be no doubt that he was strictly correct in saying that, according to the declarations of the Brazilians themselves, the reciprocity treaty with them was "obtained under promises which have not been fulfilled." We have several times produced evidence going to show that this was the fact, but it has met with the usual overpowering rejoinder that no newspaper which did not worship at the shrine of protection could tell the truth, and that any charges made against Mr. Blaine must be inspired by "British gold," and therefore false, no matter how strong the proof might appear to be. It was also said that no responsible person appeared in Brazil to father the charges, and that anonymous and journalistic assertions were beneath notice.

This whole defence has been swept away by a long communication from Ruy Barbosa published in the Rio de Janeiro *Combate* of February 24. He, it will be remembered, was Minister of Finance and virtual Premier in the Cabinet of the Provisional Government, and was the one man in Brazil mainly responsible for the negotiation of the treaty. With him were associated in that matter Senhor Cesario Alvim, Minister of the Interior, and Senhor Wandenkolk, Minister of Marine. They lend their names and authority to the account of the negotiation which Senhor Barbosa makes public, so that the story now stands upon their united testimony and personal responsibility.

The ex-Minister begins by asserting that the Provisional Government advocated the projected treaty with the dominating idea that it would give Brazilian sugar especial advantages in the United States. He quotes a letter addressed to him by the Brazilian Minister in Washington, in which the latter said: "The general exemption of sugar from customs duties will not avail us, as that will be a very slight advantage. What we need is an exclusive favor shown our product." It was this "exclusive favor," says Barbosa, which the Brazilian Government sought to obtain, and which it supposed it did obtain, from the Government of the United States. He proceeds to give various proofs, documentary and otherwise, in support of his position.

His first citation is from an official letter written by the Brazilian Minister at Washington, under date of April 22, 1890, in which that diplomat, Mr. Mendonça, urged his Government to accede to the proposed treaty, and said in so many words that "no similar treaty would be made with Spain." This proviso was constantly in the minds of the Brazilian Cabinet, and it was solely in view of it that they authorized Mr. Mendonça to proceed with the affair. Ample proof of this is furnished by Barbosa in his quotations from another letter of Mendonça's and his telegraphic reply thereto. The letter was dated September 17, 1890, and said: "We ought to lose no time in being the first to take possession of a field in which we shall have a practical monopoly, for as long as the United States do not make similar treaties, as they will not, with Spain and England, no other country can compete with us here." This letter reached Rio de Janeiro on October 20, and Barbosa immediately telegraphed in reply: "You may continue the negotiations according to the terms of your letter, just received." Later on, Mendonça was in Brazil, and in all his conferences with Barbosa, and with the entire Cabinet, he "emphatically declared that the agreement would not depart from that essential condition."

Corroboration of all this is supplied in a letter written to Baron Lucena, the last Premier of Fonseca's Administration, by ex-Minister of the Interior Alvim. He was giving an account of the whole negotiation, and wrote as follows:

"When our representative in the great American Republic, Salvador de Mendonça, came to this capital for the purpose of pressing the negotiations to a close, he gave me, as he gave all my colleagues in the Cabinet, in the conferences which we had, the most perfect assurances that, in the treaty which was to be made, it would be determined by a special clause, or by a promise of the American Government, that no similar agreement should be made with any monarchical Power of Europe. This makes clear the reason for our haste in the matter, as the American Government had previously consented to the agreement, according to the information given us by our diplomatic agent, who assured us that he had been very careful about this particular, and had encountered a most favorable disposition on the part of the

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illustrious statesman, Mr. Blaine, who had motives of high policy easy to understand."

Moreover, on December 17, 1890, Minister Mendonça, before leaving Brazil for Washington, wrote to Barbosa that if the Democrats returned to power they would alter the tariff, but would scarcely extend to other countries "the advantages, as concerns sugar, which we alone are to enjoy to the exclusion of European colonies in America." The same gentleman, when again in Brazil in 1891, after the treaty had been ratified, and when there was much public dissatisfaction with it, wrote to Barbosa asking for a conference, and saying: "I believe that in the interview which I request I can prove to you the advantage we have won, and clearly vindicate my position in affirming to you that I had a promise from Mr. Blaine that no treaty should be made with Spain."

All this evidence puts beyond possibility of doubt the fact that Minister Mendonça did assure his Government that the United States would not, in case Brazil accepted the treaty, make a similar agreement with Spain or any European monarchy. "The question comes back, then," says the *Jornal do Commercio* in commenting upon Barbosa's letter, "to whether Mr. Blaine ever did make to Salvador de Mendonça the promises which he so repeatedly and emphatically said were made him. For our part, we are obliged to believe that our Minister told the truth, all the more so in view of the fact that two successive Governments have kept him at Washington." Now, we know this is a painful subject to the *Tribune*, and that it "closed the controversy" some months ago, after it had failed to obtain a denial from either Mr. Blaine or Mr. Mendonça. We also know how difficult is its position in an affair where Mr. Blaine is concerned, and how it has to suppress all news reflecting upon him, as it did the London *Times* despatch referred to above. Neither do we forget the muzzle it wears in virtue of being a member of the Administration—a muzzle which Commissioner Raum unfeelingly exhibited to a scoffing world the other day in Washington. It will remember that it sneered at our former evidence as being "private" and "confidential"; what has it to say about publications made in the journals of Brazil, over the names of ex-Ministers, seriously impugning the good faith and honor of our Government?

WALT WHITMAN.

WALT, or Walter, Whitman was born in West Hills, Long Island, on the 31st of May, 1819, and was educated in the public schools of Brooklyn and New York city. He afterwards learned printing, and worked at that trade in summer, teaching in winter. Later on he acquired a good deal of skill as a carpenter. For brief periods of his career he edited newspapers in New Orleans and on Long Island, and in 1847-48 he made long pedestrian tours through the United States, generally following the courses of the great Western rivers. He also made pedestrian explorations in Canada. His 'Leaves of Grass' was first published in 1855. During the war his brother was wounded on the battlefield, and he hastened to visit him in camp, becoming a volunteer army nurse, in which capacity he served for three years in Washington and in Virginia. His experiences are recorded in 'Drum-Taps' and other poems. Want of rest and nervous strain brought on a severe illness in 1864, from the effects of which he never fully recovered. In 1870 he published his 'Democratic Vistas.' From 1865 to 1874 he held a Government clerkship in Washington. In the latter year he was stricken by paralysis and retired to Camden, where he was gradually recovering when the sudden death of his mother in his presence caused a relapse, and he had remained in a crippled condition ever since, although until lately in generally fair health. His intellectual powers remained unaffected. In his prime Mr. Whitman had a magnificent physique, and to the last his presence was imposing, his white hair giving him a most venerable appearance in his later years. At times he felt the pinch of poverty, but his wants were few and simple, and he had friends who were always ready to contribute to the relief of his necessities. Among his published works may be mentioned 'Leaves of Grass,' 'Passage to India,' 'After All, Not to Create Only,' 'Two Rivulets,' 'Specimen Days and Collect,' 'November Boughs,' and 'Sands at Seventy.'

It has been the curious experience of Walt Whitman to find his inspiration almost wholly in his own country, and his admirers almost wholly in another. The rhythmic apostle of democracy, he has had, in the words of one of his stanch admirers, "absolutely no popular following" at home; and the gradual increase of his circle of special readers, even here, has been largely due to the class he least approves—those who desire to be English even in their fads. The same thing was true, years ago, of "Joaquin" Miller; but while he has gradually faded from view, the robuster personality of Whitman has held its own, aided greatly by his superb physique, by the persistent and somewhat exaggerated panegyrics on his services as an army nurse, and by that rise in pecuniary value which awaits all books classed by the book-venders as "facetiæ" or "curiosa." All this constitutes a combination quite unique. To many the mere fact of foreign admiration is a sufficient proof of the greatness of an American; they have never outgrown that pithy proverb, the result of the ripe experience of a young Philadelphian of twenty-one, that "a foreign country is a kind of contemporaneous posterity." But when we remember that the scene of this particular fame was England, and that it was divided with authors now practically forgotten—with "Artemus Ward" and "Josh Billings" and the author of 'Sam Slick'; when we remember how readily the same recognition is still given in England to any American who misspells or makes fritters of English, or who enters literature, as Lady Morgan's Irish hero entered a drawing-room, by throwing a back somersault in at the door—the judicious American will by no means regard this experience as final. It must be remembered, too, that all the malodorous portions of Whitman's earlier poems were avowedly omitted from the first English edition of his works; he was expurgated and fumigated in a way that might have excited the utmost contempt from M. Guy de Maupassant, or indeed from himself; and so the first presentation of this poet to his English admirers showed him, as it were, clothed and in his right mind. Again, it is to be remembered that much of the vague sentiment of democracy in his works, while wholly picturesque and novel to an Englishman—provided he can tolerate it at all—is to us comparatively trite and almost conventional; it is the rhythmic or semi-rhythmic reproduction of a thousand Fourth of July orations, and as we are less and less inclined to hear this oft-told tale in plain prose, we are least of all tempted to read it in what is not even plain verse. There is, therefore, nothing remarkable in the sort of parallax which exhibits the light of Whitman's fame at so different an angle in his own country and in England.

But while an English fame does not of itself prove an American to be great—else were we all suing for Buffalo Bill's social favor as if we were members of the British aristocracy—it certainly does not prove that he is not great; and it is for us to view Whitman as dispassionately as if he were an author all our own, like Whittier or Parkman, of whom an English visitor will tell you, with labored politeness, that he has a vague impression of having heard of him. The most distinct canonization ever afforded to Whitman on our own shores was when Mr. Stedman placed him among the *Dii majores* of our literature by giving him a separate chapter in his 'Poets of America'; and though it is true that this critic had already cheapened that honor by extending it to Bayard Taylor, yet this was obviously explained in part by personal friendship, and partly by the wish not to give New England too plainly the lion's share of fame. Possibly this last consideration may have had influence in the case of Whitman also; but it is impossible not to see in this chapter a slightly defensive and apologetic tone, such as appears nowhere else in the book. Mr. Stedman's own sense of form is so strong, his instinct of taste so trustworthy, and his love-poetry in particular of so high and refined a quality, that he could not possibly approach Whitman with the sort of predetermined sympathy that we might expect, for instance, from Ella Wheeler Wilcox or Amélie Rives.

There seems to be a provision in nature for a class of poets who appear at long intervals, and who resolutely confine themselves to a few very simple stage properties, and substitute mere cadence for form. There is, or was, an Ossian period, when simple enthusiasts sat up at night and read until they were sleepy about the waving of the long grass on the blasted heath, and the passing of the armed warrior and the white-bosomed maiden. Ossian is not much read now, but Napoleon Bonaparte admired him and Goethe studied him. Neither is Tupper now much cultivated; but men not very old assure us that his long, rambling lines were once copied by the page into extract-books, and that he was welcomed as relieving mankind from the tiresome restraints of verse. It would be a great mistake, doubtless, to class Whitman with Ossian on the one side, or Tupper on the other; but it would be a still greater error to overlook the fact that the mere revolt against the tyranny of form has been made again and again, before him, and that without securing immortal fame to the author of the experiment.

It is no uncommon thing, moreover, for the fiercest innovating poets to revert to the ranks of order before they die—as Wordsworth gradually became conventional and Swinburne decent. Whitman has abstained, through all his later publications, from those proclamations of utter nudity which Emerson called "priapism," in connection with 'Leaves of Grass';

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and is far more compressed and less simply enumerative than when he began. True poetry is not merely the putting of thoughts into words, but the putting of the best thoughts into the best words; it gives us, as in painting, the *O* of Giotto; it secures for us what Ruskin calls "the perfection and precision of the instantaneous line." It fires a rifle-bullet instead of a shower of bird-shot; it culls the very best phrase out of language, instead of throwing a dozen epithets to see if one may chance to stick. For example, Emerson centres his "Problem" in "a cowled churchman"; Browning singles out an individual bishop or rabbi, as the case may be; but Whitman enumerates "priests on the earth, oracles, sacrificers, brahmins, sabians, llamas, monks, muftis, exhorters." In "The Song of the Broad-Axe" there are nineteen successive lines beginning with the word "Where"; in "Salut au Monde!" eighteen beginning with "I see." In "I sing the body electric," he specifies in detail "Wrists and wrist-joints, hand, palm, knuckles, thumb, fore-finger, finger-joints, finger-nails," with thirteen more lines of just such minutiæ. In the same poem he explains that he wishes his verses to be regarded as "Man's, woman's, child's, youth's, wife's, husband's, mother's, father's, young man's, young woman's poems." It is like bringing home a sackful of pebbles from the beach and asking you to admire the collected heap as a fine sea view. But it is to be noticed that these follies diminish in his later works: the lines grow shorter; and though he does not acquiesce in rhyme, he occasionally accepts a rhythm so well defined that it may be called conventional, as in the fine verses entitled "Darest thou now, O Soul?" And it is a fact which absolutely overthrows the whole theory of poetic structure or structurelessness implied in Whitman's volumes, that his warmest admirers usually place first among his works the poem on Lincoln's death, "My Captain," which comes so near to recognized poetic methods that it actually falls into rhyme.

Whitman can never be classed, as Spinoza was by Schleiermacher, among "God-intoxicated" men; but he was early intoxicated with two potent draughts—himself and his country:

"One's self I sing, a simple separate person,
Yet utter the word Democratic, the word En Masse."

With these words his collected poems open, and to these he has always been true. They have brought with them a certain access of power, and they have also implied weakness; on the personal side leading to pruriency and on the national side to rant. For some reason or other our sexual nature is so ordained that it is very hard for a person to dwell much upon it, even for noble and generous purposes, without developing a tendency to morbidness; the lives of philanthropists and reformers have sometimes shown this, and when one insists on it for purposes of self-glorification, the danger is greater. Whitman did not escape the danger; it is something that he outgrew it; and it is possible that if let entirely alone, which could hardly be expected, he might have dropped "Children of Adam," and some of the more nauseous passages in other effusions, from his published works. One thing which has always accentuated the seeming grossness of the sensual side of his works has been the entire absence of that personal and ideal side of passion which can alone elevate and dignify it. Probably no poet of equal pretensions was ever so entirely wanting in the sentiment of individual love; not only has he given us no love-poem, in the ordinary use of that term, but it is as difficult to conceive of his writing one as of his chanting a serenade beneath the window of his mistress. His love is the blunt, undisguised attraction of sex to sex, the physical appetite for the requisite quantity of white flesh; and whether this flesh belongs to a goddess or a street-walker, a Queensbury or a handmaid, is to him absolutely unimportant. This not only separates him from the poets of thoroughly ideal emotion, like Poe, but from those, like Rossetti, whose passion, though it may incarnate itself in the body, is inseparable from the very profoundest and most subtle yearnings of the spirit.

In preaching this gospel of unbounded self-indulgence—or, as his admirers would prefer to call it, self-expression—he has constantly made his own personality, and especially his own fine physical manhood, a factor. It is therefore fair to introduce this factor into criticism, in a way that would be wholly unfair if we were dealing with an objective poet like Browning. Thus, in his poem of "Native Moments," Whitman says:

"Native moments—when you come upon me—ah, you are here now,
Give me now libidinous joys only,
Give me the drench of my passions, give me life coarse and rank.
To-day I go to consort with Nature's darlings; to-night, too.
I am for those who believe in loose delights; I share the midnight orgies of young men."

Much more has Whitman written to the same purpose, and with a bad influence—we speak from personal observation—on the lives of many young men; an influence that can scarcely be estimated. This passage is probably not among those extracts from Whitman which are now read for charitable purposes at Congregational rooms or in the parlors of Episcopal churches; but it represents what the poet would once have recognized as the vital principle of his muse. And he constantly represents himself as the living example of what he sings:

"I now, thirty-seven years old, in perfect health, begin,
Hoping not to cease till death."

This is his theory, this his invited test. No matter, for the present, what the moralist would say of the theory; what the physiologist would say of it is, that a man who undertakes to act upon it will end in bankruptcy, will not live out his life; that those who thus claim to be Nature's darlings end as Nature's warnings; that paralysis, insanity, premature old age are the retribution for "the drench of the passions" in youth. Was there ever a sadder personal commentary on all this than when we find this same poet, who at thirty-seven exulted in his manly strength, addressing school-children at fifty-five from the point of view of extreme age ("An Old Man's Thoughts of School"), and having constant appeals made for him, when hardly past the prime of life, as for one broken down by years and infirmities? Compare this premature senility of the poet of "life coarse and rank," with the old age of the chaster poets—with Bryant's eighty-four clean and wholesome years, with Whittier's, almost a life-long invalid, and yet busy and useful when eighty-four years are told. It is the easy device of admirers to attribute this want of physical staying power to Whitman's army services, but the land is full of men who encountered during the civil war, and without boasting, an ordeal of bodily exposures to which those of Whitman were as nothing, in that comparatively sheltered position which he chose for himself, and who are still in health and vigor. We have no wish to dwell on the bodily calamities of any one, but where a man deliberately invites the personal test, and where the application of that test points a moral for coming generations, it would be cowardly to shrink from its recognition.

On purely poetic grounds it must be said of Whitman that he has in a high degree that measure of the ideal faculty which Emerson conceded to Margaret Fuller: he has "lyric glimpses." Rarely constructing anything, he is yet gifted in phrases, in single cadences, in single wayward strains as from an Æolian harp. It constantly happens that the titles or catch-words of his poems are better than the poems themselves; as we sometimes hear it said in praise of a clergyman that he has beautiful texts. "Proud Music of the Storm," "When Lilies Last in Door-yard Bloomed," and others, will readily occur; and if they were sometimes borrowed or duplicated, as "The Sobbing of the Bells" from Poe, it is no matter. Often, on the other hand, they are inflated, as "Chanting the Square Deific," or affected and feeble, as "Eidolons." One of the most curiously un-American traits in a poet professedly so national is his way of interlarding foreign, and especially French, phrases, to a degree that recalls the fashionable novels of the last generation, and gives an incongruous effect comparable only to Theodore Parker's description of an African chief seen by some one at Sierra Leone—"With the exception of a dress-coat, his Majesty was as naked as a pestle." In the opening lines, already quoted from his collected volume (ed. 1881), Whitman defines "the word Democratic, the word En Masse"; and everywhere French phrases present themselves. The vast sublimity of night on the prairies only suggests to him "how plenteous! how spiritual! how *résumé*," whatever that may mean; he talks of "*Mélange* mine own, the seen and the unseen"; writes poems "with reference to *ensemble*"; says "the future of the States I *harbinge* glad and sublime"; and elsewhere, "I blow through my *embouchures* my loudest and gayest for them." He is "the extolled of *amies*," meaning apparently mistresses; and says that neither youth pertains to him "nor *delicatesse*." Phrases like these might be multiplied indefinitely, and when he says, "No dainty *dolce affettuoso* I," he seems vainly to disclaim being exactly what he is. He cannot even introduce himself to the audience without borrowing a foreign word—"I, Walt Whitman, one of the roughs, a kosmos"—and really stands in this respect on a plane no higher than that of those young girls at boarding-school who commit French phrases to memory in order to use them in conversation and give a fancied tone of good society.

But after all, the offence, which is a trivial affectation in a young girl, has a deeper foundation in a man who begins his literary career at thirty-seven. The essential fault of Whitman's poetry was well pointed out by a man of more heroic nature and higher genius, Lanier, who defined him as a dandy. Of all our poets, he is really the least simple, the most meretricious; and this is the reason why the honest consciousness of the classes whom he most celebrates, the drover, the teamster, the soldier, has never been reached by his songs. He talks of labor as one who has never really labored; his 'Drum-Taps' proceed from one who has never personally responded to the tap of the drum. This is his fatal and insurmountable defect; and it is because his own countrymen instinctively recognize this, and foreigners do not, that his following is mainly abroad, not at home. But it is also true that he has, in a fragmentary and disappointing way, some of the high ingredients of a poet's nature: a keen eye, a ready sympathy, a strong touch, a

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vivid but not shaping imagination. In his cyclopædia of epithets, in his accumulated directory of details, in his sandy wastes of iteration, there are many scattered particles of gold—never sifted out by him, never abundant enough to pay for the sifting, yet unmistakable gold. He has something of the turgid wealth, the self-conscious and mouthing amplitude of Victor Hugo, and much of his broad, vague, indolent desire for the welfare of the whole human race; but he has none of Hugo's structural power, his dramatic or melodramatic instinct, and his occasionally terse and brilliant condensation. It is not likely that he will ever have that place in the future which is claimed for him by his English admirers or even by the more cautious endorsement of Mr. Stedman; for, setting aside all other grounds of criticism, he has phrase, but not form—and without form there is no immortality.

BARANTE'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, March 15, 1892.

THE second volume of the 'Souvenirs du Baron de Barante,' which has just appeared, is even more interesting than the first. We left M. de Barante, in 1813, at Nantes, where he had been sent as prefect; in this capacity he had to organize the new levies ordered by the Emperor. A great coalition was formed against France: Prussia had joined Russia, and even Sweden had entered into the league. Barante tells a curious anecdote about Bernadotte. In September, 1813, Talma came to Nantes and gave a few performances. He told M. de Barante that the famous Mademoiselle Georges, who had left France a few years before to go to St. Petersburg, passed through Sweden on her return to France. Bernadotte, knowing that she was on her way to Paris, where she certainly would see Napoleon, gave her a letter for him. Mademoiselle Georges had the letter sewn in her stays, and did not take it out till she was alone with the Emperor. He read it, and, speaking to himself, said: "It is too late." Mademoiselle Georges knew nothing more; but M. de Barante is not wrong in inferring that Bernadotte hesitated much before joining the coalition, and never was a safe ally of the Powers leagued against France.

The levies of Napoleon had already exhausted France; they were made in virtue of *sénatus-consultes*.

"The Senate gave the Emperor, January 10, 1813, 100,000 men from the national guard, 100,000 from the conscripts of 1810, 1811, and 1812, who had not been called to service, and 150,000 of the conscription of 1814; in October, 1813, 280,000 more from the classes of 1812, 1813, and 1814; and a month afterwards, 100,000 from the classes anterior to 1813, back to the year 1803. These pitiless levies, made without any drafting, without any deliberation by the Councils of Revision, the requisitions of horses, for which no credits were open to me, so that I could not pay them—such was now the habitual occupation of my days. There was no longer any law or any rule. Though the administration could act as arbitrarily as it liked, I tried to exercise my powers with equity and mildness."

Mildness, humanity, were the chief qualities of M. de Barante; and they were not purely negative: he did not hesitate sometimes to risk his position or to incur responsibilities in order to do some good. He is sincere when he tells us that nothing in his administration at Nantes gave him so much pleasure as when he succeeded in saving the lives of two conscripts who were on the point of being executed because there had been some brawl between conscripts and gendarmes.

M. de Barante does not give the history of the great events of 1814; he contents himself with telling what came under his personal observation. His judgments on the men of the time are very interesting. Read this, for instance:

"Louis XVIII., as belonging to the House of France, considered himself of a race superior to all the reigning families. He assumed a sort of patronizing and aristocratic superiority towards all the other sovereigns. The Emperor Alexander was for him only a cadet of the House of Holstein. He was cold with the Czar and kept him at a distance. The Emperor wished to marry his sister, the Grand Duchess Anne, to the Duc de Berry; the King feigned not to understand his overtures on the subject. He did not even confer on him the Order of the Holy Spirit, which he had some notion of getting. M. de Talleyrand, either because he wished to play the courtier, or because he already contemplated an alliance of France with England against Russia, was careful not to give other advice. The Emperor Alexander left Paris highly discontented."

M. de Barante judges Talleyrand with much acuteness; he describes well his liberal and constitutional tendencies, his love for the great combinations of politics, as well as his laziness, his hatred of details. Talleyrand had at first wished Louis XVIII. to keep on with the tricolor cockade; he soon saw that he had expected too much from a King who signed his decrees "from the eighteenth year of my reign." Long afterwards, speaking to M. de Barante of the hopes which he had cherished in 1814, and which had been disappointed: "I must repeat," said he, "the word of Madame de Créqui: This is not the son I had in my head."

The Abbé de Montesquieu, one of the framers of the *Charte*, "had no very fixed political principles. . . . His love of liberty did not go beyond the States of Languedoc or the provincial assemblies; the Restoration was for him the *ancien régime* becoming reasonable. More of a *grand seigneur* than a courtier, he had the monarchical superstitions. Nobody would have more frankly told the King what he believed was the truth, having little of that civility of the ante-chamber into which the old nobility had fallen. But, this duty once accomplished, the will of the King became sacred to him."

It is impossible better to describe the state of mind of the best part of the French Legitimists—a state of mind which has always persisted since, notwithstanding many changes and revolutions. "To be in any sort of opposition to the King seemed to him a moral dereliction." Barante was amazed at seeing how the new France, the France of the Revolution and the Empire, was unknown to the *émigrés;* it was to them *terra incognita*. All the *émigrés* were not from foreign parts: there were some who had, so to speak, emigrated to their provinces. The new Chancellor, M. Dambray, "lived for twenty years in Normandy, honored on all sides, respected in his province, charitable, just, affable, yet foreign to all; never going to Paris, without any relation with the new men, not knowing the new laws, not reading a new book, or, it was said, even a newspaper; spending his days with country neighbors, and his evenings in playing piquet with his *curé* and his aunt."

We need not give the portrait of Beugnot; he has described himself better than anybody could do in his invaluable Memoirs (a book, by the by, which has become very rare). Barante speaks of Baron Louis, the first Minister of Finance of the Restoration, with much respect; M. Thiers, who pretended to be a great financier, always said that he had learned everything from Baron Louis. The Duke of Angoulême made a journey to Nantes, and Barante wished that the Prince should not appear to the populace surrounded by the Vendéens alone. His task was not as difficult as he expected:

"Not remembering the *ancien régime*, he little regretted it. This equality in obedience, this suppression of the aristocracy, this regularity of the administration and of the law—all this suited him well enough. A sort of instinct or confused reflection advised him that it was a good foundation for an absolute power. He did not feel the repugnance of the old *émigrés* to the imperial régime. If his impressions could ever have been lively, I would have said that it made his mouth water to hear how, in great and in small things alike, was exercised the authority of the government which had given way to the Restoration. I found in him no gratitude, no affection, no preference for any opinion, for any party, for any class. In his mind, he was under obligations to nobody. The *émigrés* had done nothing for royalty and now embarrassed it; the Vendéens had never succeeded and now wished to be recompensed as if they had."

The picture is not flattering, but bears the impress of truth.

Barante was in his prefecture at Nantes when Napoleon returned from Elba. The Duke of Bourbon came to Angers for the purpose of raising the west of France against the Emperor. M. Louis de la Trémoille came also with an undefined mission. When Napoleon reached Paris, M. d'Autichamp, one of the Vendéen chiefs, merely advised the Duc de Bourbon to leave France. The Prince went only to Beaupréau, in the Bocage; some of his friends still wanted to see if anything could be tried. It was with difficulty that twenty peasants were found to mount guard at his door. Having received a passport, the Duc de Bourbon went away and embarked for England.

Barante sent his resignation to Paris as soon as he heard that the imperial authority was reëstablished in the capital. He left directly for Barante with his wife and children; he regularly received news from his friend the Comte de Montlosier, whose letters are given in this new volume. In May, 1815, he lost his patience and went to Paris; he found the capital without any deep attachment to any cause, feeling that everything was uncertain and provisional. He saw Benjamin Constant almost every day at Madame Récamier's; they had both been intimate with Madame de Staël, and had little to learn about each other. They were both Liberals and partisans of a Constitutional Government.

The correspondence of M. de Barante with his wife and his friends during the eventful year 1815 is in the highest degree interesting. When Louis XVIII. returned to Paris after Waterloo, he made up what was called a Constitutional Cabinet, with Fouché at its head. Barante wrote at the time a memoir "On the Political and Constitutional Institutions of France, such as the King wishes to establish definitely," at the request of M. Pasquier, the new Home Minister, who had chosen him to be Secretary-General of the Interior. The position was an important one, as he had to correspond with all the prefects and to direct their policy.

When the elections took place for the Chambers, Barante was elected in the Loire-Inférieure and in the Puy-de-Dôme. He had been prefect in the first department, and Auvergne was his native province. The Duc de Richelieu formed a Cabinet after the retirement of Talleyrand. Barante renders full justice to his rare qualities, *cum grano salis:* "In short," says he, "he had the aspect of a *grand seigneur*,

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and a loyal, reasonable, honest man, which seduced and made you respect him. Yet the limitations of his mind and the inconsistencies of his character were speedily perceived."

Richelieu was very independent in character; he had once a conversation with the Comte d'Artois, and reminded him that when he took power, the Count had given him his word that he would support his Cabinet. Monsieur answered, "But ——" The Duc de Richelieu did not let him finish his phrase; he bowed, retired, shut the door with violence, went to his house, where M. Pasquier was waiting for him, and flung himself into a chair. M. Pasquier asked him what had happened. "Well, I have just seen a —— who does not know what a word of honor means!"

The second volume of these souvenirs ends with 1821; it is to be hoped that we shall soon have another. The work forms a valuable addition to the original documents concerning the period of the Restoration.

Correspondence.

A "MOCK CHARONDAS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Probably the reason why the law of Charondas, providing for the instruction of the sons of citizens in letters at the public expense, has been so "strangely unnoticed by historians," is that Bentley proved, in his immortal 'Dissertation on the Epistles of Phalaris' (pp. 358–378), that what Diodorus Siculus (b. xii. §12) tells about Charondas and his laws is entirely untrustworthy. The laws attributed by him to this "mock Charondas," as Bentley styles him, were quite different from those known to Aristotle as his. This educational law, accordingly, stands upon no better footing than the one reported by Diodorus (§17), that whoever proposed any change in legislation must do it with a halter around his neck, until the people should decide by adopting it, or not, whether he was to live or die—or the other one (§13), that whoever, by marrying a second wife, gave a stepmother to his children, should be held in disgrace, as the author of his own misfortunes.

Truly yours, Henry W. Haynes.

Boston, March 25, 1892.

[Our chief aim in the "Note" to which Prof. Haynes takes exception was to "rebuke the self-conceit of those who hold that the education of all at the charge of all is an idea born in our own time or country." The quotation we translated from Diodorus proves that idea to have been at least as old as the Christian era. Thus much is clear, even if Diodorus credited the law to the wrong Charondas—for two legislators bore that name—or if all he says of the law was a figment of his own. But if, as Weber remarks, this law, with others ascribed to Charondas, had been moulded into metre and handed down by tradition long before the era of Diodorus, then the quotation proves our point still better. Bentley would not have denied this.

It seemed "strange" to us that Grote said nothing about the school-law ascribed to Charondas, because he devotes a page to another law of his (iv., p. 418). If he judged the school-law to be erroneously considered the work of Charondas, it was natural to expect he would have said so—and the more as its distinctive idea marks an epoch in popular education. It was worth a word.

In the judgment of George Weber—whose 'Universal History' is one of the latest standard authorities—the education law taxing all for all was really derived by southern Italian and Sicilian cities from some ancient Charondas. Accordingly he gives a list of nine Charondasian enactments, the last of which is that "all children shall attend schools supported by the State." Another of the nine is that about second marriages, which will seem less absurd to Mr. Haynes when he notices the reason for it. He who married a second wife was no longer eligible to office, as it was presumed that he who had introduced discord into his family would treat his country no better. The other law to which Mr. Haynes objects, that "whoever proposed any change in legislation must do it with a halter around his neck, and be strung up at once if his proposal were rejected," is an enactment worthy of all acceptation. It ought to be at once adopted in all our States, and all the people will say, Amen! Laws characterized by what may be called "poetical" justice have been common even in modern times—notably in the German Empire. They were naturally still more common in eras when laws were themselves poems.—Ed. Nation.]

MORE NAMES OF DANISH WRITERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prof. Bronk's letter on Danish literature, published by you on March 24, is so timely and sympathetic that it seems ungrateful in a lover of northern art to take exception to any part of it. My criticism, however, refers not to any fault of commission, but simply to one of omission. While Prof. Bronk's list of contemporary Danish writers does not pretend to be complete, it should, I think, have included Ernst von der Recke, one of the sweetest and most powerful of modern dramatists; Einar Christiansen, a younger but hardly less talented lyrical poet; Erik Bögh, the genial champion of the old school; Richardt, the uncrowned poet laureate of Denmark; Karl Gjellerup, the first Wagner critic of Scandinavia; Herman Bang, the eccentric but brilliant novelist; and last but not least, Carl Ploug, the sweet-voiced singer of northern lays. Besides these more prominent names, there is a host of clever *raconteurs* and critics, many of whose writings are worthy of being clothed in an English dress.

Prof. Bronk's explanation of our ignorance of Drachmann, on the ground of his extreme nationality, may be well founded as regards that writer's earlier works, but it does not hold good for his latest novel, 'Forskrevet' (Pledged), in my opinion one of the most powerful productions of modern literature. Karl Gjellerup's 'Minna,' too, is as full of interest to a foreigner as to a Dane. The recent enterprise of the Messrs. Appleton in introducing Dutch imaginative literature to English readers ought to prove the feasibility of Prof. Bronk's suggestion of a similar attempt with the writings of Young Denmark.

Yours respectfully,

Daniel Kilham Dodge.

Columbia College, March 27, 1892.

A FOURTH-CLASS APPOINTMENT IN SOUTHERN MARYLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The incident referred to in this communication was related to me by a gentleman of this city only a short time ago. I told him the matter ought to be made public, and asked him to obtain for me the facts in writing. He did so, and I have in my possession a letter from his friend living in one of our southern counties, who is a Republican. This gentleman does not wish his name published, but is ready, if necessary, to substantiate the facts which I quote from his letter:

"When President Harrison came into office, our Congressman (who was a Republican) had our Post-office removed from ——'s store, the most convenient location in ——ville, and on the railroad, where it was carefully attended to, to a store inconveniently situated, where they were careless in their attention to the mails, and where liquors are sold—not *in the room* where the Post-office is kept, but down stairs. This makes our Post-office frequently unfit for a child or woman to go in to get the mail, because white men and negroes come from down stairs in different states of drunkenness and loaf around the stove in the Post-office. They are often profane and sometimes quarrelsome.

"Having obtained a letter of introduction to Postmaster-General Wanamaker, accompanied by a gentleman from this neighborhood I called on Mr. Wanamaker in Washington. He received us very kindly, and said the Post-office should certainly be removed to some place where liquors were not sold on the premises. He said Mr. Clarkson had the management of the fourth-class postmasters and that he would take us right into Mr. Clarkson's office, introduce us, and request him to attend to it at once. When we got to Mr. Clarkson's office, very unfortunately, he was out at lunch. Mr. Wanamaker said it was impossible to give us any more of his time, but if we would call upon Mr. Clarkson after lunch and explain the thing to him, he had no doubt that he would alter things at once. We called, and, after keeping us waiting several hours, he informed us, in anything but a courteous tone and manner, that it was no use to bring tales against postmasters to him; that if we had any grievance, we must put it down on paper and sign it, then there was something tangible to go upon; but that he did not want to listen to just any tale any one chose to bring. He had no time for that. I offered to write it down if he would supply me with pen and paper, which he did. I gave three distinct reasons for wishing the office moved: (1.) Its distance from the railroad, and its inconvenient location. (2.) That liquors were sold in the same building in which the Post-office was located. (3.) That the office was very carelessly attended to.

"We both signed our names to this paper and handed it to Mr. Clarkson himself. He read it and said, 'Very well, I will send an inspector down in a few weeks, and if he finds things as you say, there shall be a change.'

"In three or four weeks after this interview the inspector came down. He sent for me, and said that as for my first reason, the office was within the number of rods from the railroad allowed by law, and that we must put up with its inconvenient location; that we could not expect to have everything just as we wanted it; then, that for a Post-office in a saloon it was very well arranged, and that liquors were hardly an objection, as they were sold down stairs. I reminded him that that did not prevent people under their influence coming up stairs, and asked him if it was not against the law to have a post-office in a place where liquors were sold. He said, 'Why, certainly it is,' and took from his pocket a copy of that section of the law and read it to me, adding that 'if that were enforced, half the post-offices in the South would have to be closed'; and asked me if I would be willing to do without one at ——ville. I told him no, and that argument had no force here, as we had another

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place for it that was satisfactory in every respect. He asked, 'Where?' I said at ——'s store, where it had been so satisfactory hitherto. But he said, 'He is a Democrat.' I said, 'He votes that ticket, but is no politician.' The Inspector replied, '*When it comes to a choice between a Democrat and a saloon, the saloon will get it every time.*' Then in answer to my third reason, he required me to give him the particulars of their carelessness, etc., which I did. He said I had good reasons for complaint on that head; that he would reprimand the Postmaster and threaten him, and he had no doubt that things would improve in that respect [as they have]. Then I said to him, 'I suppose there is no chance of a change of place for our Post-office.' He said he thought not, unless our Congressman, who had it put where it is, would request Mr. Clarkson to make a change, which he was not likely to do. I have heard nothing more since."

Comment upon this scandal is unnecessary. Trusting that you will publish the statement in the cause of civil-service reform, I am

Yours truly, B. P. M.

BALTIMORE, MD., March 23, 1892.

WAGES AND THE TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Enclosed please find clipping from the Meriden *Daily Republican*. I would like to know if the facts stated in regard to Mr. Dolge's factory are true, and if so, if they are not an unanswerable argument for a protective tariff.—Very truly yours,

A TRUTH-SEEKER.

MERIDEN, CONN., March 30, 1892.

[Enclosure.]

Rev. Mr. Griffin has doubtless read the challenge of Congressman McMillin of Tennessee, made in the course of that gentleman's speech in the tariff debate, defying any Northern Republican "to give the name of a single individual in the woollen industry whose wages have increased since the passage of the McKinley Bill." He got an answer. One of the employees of Alfred Dolge promptly wrote that the six or seven hundred hands in Mr. Dolge's factory had their wages increased 12 per cent. and their hours of labor reduced from ten to nine and one-half in January, 1891, "because of the McKinley Bill," as their employer explicitly stated. In January of the present year they had their wages again increased 10 per cent., Mr. Dolge again stating that it was "because of the McKinley Bill." He is not getting one cent more for his goods than he did before the McKinley tariff was enacted, but he is making them in immensely larger quantities and consequently at a more economical rate of production.

[The reasons why we cannot take this statement of facts (supposing them to be correctly reported) as a logical argument in favor of protection are three in number: First, it is not shown that Mr. Dolge's action was a necessary consequence of protection. As the story is here told it was mere benevolence on his part; another man might be equally benevolent under free trade. Second, it is not shown that the Dolge case is the usual experience under the McKinley tariff. If there have been more decreases than increases of wages since the 1st of October, 1890, then the case cited is not representative. We do not attempt to pass upon that question, though Congressman Crosby of Massachusetts was able to cite, in a recent speech in the House, forty-nine cases of reductions of wages occurring last year. We say merely that the case cited falls short of being "an unanswerable argument for a protective tariff." Third, an increase of wages in all the protected factories in the United States due to the tariff would not be such an argument. Senator Sherman once said in a speech opposing an increase of the tariff that the effect of it would be to raise wages in protected employments higher than in unprotected employments, and this he considered to be essentially unjust.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

DODD, MEAD & Co. announce two new volumes in their "Makers of America" series—a Life of Charles Sumner, by Anna L. Dawes; and a Life of Columbus, by Charles Kendall Adams. They also promise 'The Art of Entertaining,' by Mrs. M. E. W. Sherwood; and 'Prince Serebryani,' an historical novel by Count Alexis Tolstoi, translated by Jeremiah Curtin.

Prof. J. H. Patton's 'Concise History of the American People' is to be brought out in a new revised and enlarged edition, in two volumes, bearing the new title, 'Four Hundred Years of American History.' Fords, Howard & Hulbert are the publishers.

Another Columbian announcement of interest is 'The Story of the Discovery of the New World by Columbus,' by Frederick Saunders of the Astor Library. Thomas Whittaker will publish it.

Damrell & Upham, Boston, bring out 'The Ethics of Music,' lectures before the Philadelphia Musical Academy by Miss Edith V. Eastman.

The Cupples Co. of the same city will speedily publish 'The House of Cromwell, and the Story of Dunkirk: a genealogical history of the descendants of the Protector, with anecdotes and letters,' by James Waylen.

'Materialism and the Modern Physiology of the Nervous System,' by William H. Thomson, and 'The Story of Sicily,' by the late Prof. Freeman, are among the announcements of the Putnams.

The second volume of the 'Memorial History' of the city of New York, edited by James Grant Wilson, is now in the printer's hands, and is expected to appear in May.

Harper & Bros. are soon to publish 'The Kansas Conflict,' by Charles Robinson, formerly Governor of Kansas. They also announce a new edition of Hardy's 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles,' revised and expanded by the author.

Several reprints lie upon our table, among them two editions of 'Rasselas,' one issued by Leach, Shewell & Sanborn, in their "Students' Series of English Classics," edited by Prof. F. N. Scott, and the other by the Putnams as vol. 36 of their tasteful "Knickerbocker Nuggets"; 'Select Essays of Macaulay,' five in number and all literary, edited by Samuel Thurber (Boston: Allyn & Bacon); Milton's "Samson Agonistes," in the Pitt Press Series (Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan), with introduction, notes, glossary, and indexes, by A. Wilson Verity; 'Political Pamphlets,' being the fourth volume in the Pocket Library of English Literature (Macmillan), edited by George Saintsbury and comprising the more famous writings in that sort by Defoe, Swift, Burke, Sydney Smith, Cobbett, and Scott; 'Horae Sabbaticae,' two volumes made up of contributions by Sir James F. Stephen to the *Saturday Review* (Macmillan); and two volumes in the Brantwood edition of Ruskin's works, 'The Eagle's Nest,' and 'The Crown of Wild Olives' (Charles E. Merrill & Co.). We may also dismiss with brief mention here the two most recent volumes issued by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, in their "Masterpieces of Foreign Authors" series—namely, 'The Thoughts of Novalis,' edited and translated by M. J. Hope, and 'The Comedies of Carlo Goldoni,' edited with an introduction by Helen Zimmern.

B. Westermann & Co. send us a copy of the final revision of the German Bible. The "Probe-Bibel" was issued in 1883, with the request that all scholars interested would suggest emendations; the present version is put forth by a committee of the evangelical "Kirchenconferenz," and presumably represents the consensus of German scholarship.

Mr. Frank M. Etting's 'Hall of Independence,' an historical account of the old State House of Pennsylvania, has gone into a second edition, with some additions (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates). A volume in which local interest has not in a similar way become general, is 'Newburgh, her Institutions, Industries, and Leading Citizens' (Newburgh, N. Y.: Ritchie & Hull).

In her 'Love-Letters of a Worldly Woman' (Harpers), Mrs. W. K. Clifford gives us, in the form of correspondence, glimpses of the love-affairs, and the ideas of marriage and life, of three women who sometimes make the reader suspect that they are scarcely human, to say nothing of "worldly." However, a good deal of thought and suggestiveness has got into the book, and many of the experiences it portrays are more typical now than in the days of our grandmothers.

Four parts are promised of D. A. Gregg's 'Architectural Rendering in Pen and Ink' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.); the two now received are confined to the simplest problems and are by no means a complete treatise on pen-drawing, but a series of lessons in the making of architectural pictures, embodying the methods of an accomplished draughtsman and a teacher of experience. The directions are clear and technical, accompanying a set of outlines to be worked up by students according to example and precept. Mr. Gregg naturally insists first and last on the quality and use of the line. There is no exposition of principles or study of mere representation. But then, pen-drawing is the least literal of all graphic representations: all its processes are of suggestion and interpretation, not of imitation. It has, quite apart from its subject and likeness, a beauty or ugliness of its own that will intrude, and the draughtsman has got to master this, or he cannot make a good pen-drawing. His lines are there and insist on recognition; he must learn to use them attractively and economically, and this is what Mr. Gregg undertakes to teach. Thus far he deals only with plain and simply picturesque buildings; we shall be interested to see how he treats the higher and more difficult problems of monumental architecture, if he goes so far.

Perhaps nothing shows more strikingly the difference between the ancient world and the modern than the decay of symbolism. Symbolism is the natural refuge of primitive man in art, as pantheism, its correlative, is in religion; so that we find the earliest art, and through tradition ancient art, everywhere pervaded and in great measure shaped by it. But to the modern mind, absorbed in realism and in science, symbolism is a forgotten and unsympathetic thing; and one of the chief difficulties

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that moderns have in comprehending ancient art lies in their want of sympathy and understanding of this phase of it. Mr. W. R. Lethaby, in 'Architecture, Mysticism, and Myth' (London: Percival & Co.), has gathered up some of the most general and widely diffused symbolisms that have found expression in old architecture, particularly those in which are imaged the structure or phenomena of the outer world, illustrating them by abundant quotation from many authorities. In a dozen well-written chapters he discusses the orientation of buildings, the dome of the sky, the gate of the sun, the starring of ceilings, the labyrinth, and like topics, leisurely, and without close analysis or much attempt at generalization. Such embodying of analogies, it must be said, has hardly had in architecture, where construction and use have from the beginning been the determining factors, the control that it has had in the decorative arts; nevertheless the idea of it pleased and more or less influenced the early builders, and is interesting to follow in the history of art. Mr. Lethaby's book contains a variety of curious reading, and if any means were provided for referring back to what is in it without rereading, it would be a storehouse of many interesting ideas.

Mr. W. Ward Fowler's 'Julius Cæsar and the Foundation of the Roman Imperial System' (Putnams) is a volume in the series of "Heroes of the Nations." It is intended for persons unfamiliar with the classics, and is well written, by a man who knows his subject, and may be heartily recommended as a useful guide. It is excellently printed, and its illustrations, except for the ridiculous head and tail-pieces, are drawn from trustworthy sources. But the binding cannot be praised for its beauty.

With the publication of the second volume of Mr. Warr's translation, English readers have complete Schwabe's latest revision of Teuffel's 'History of Roman Literature' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). The original is too well known to call for extended remark here. It has been well said of the book that it is *annales*, not *historia:* it is invaluable for the facts and is perfectly indispensable to scholars, but one looks into it in vain for any broad, philosophic treatment of either the intellectual or the literary development of Rome. For this, recourse must be had to other works. Mr. Warr has done his work well, and has added many useful English references. The only fault to be found with this volume is that in it, as we remarked of the first, we are too constantly reminded that it is a translation by his over-fidelity to the German original.

The third volume of Sir John Lubbock's "Modern Science Series" is 'The Oak, a Popular Introduction to Forest Botany,' by H. Marshall Ward (Appletons). In this little book is traced the life-history of an oak, beginning with the structure of an acorn, and passing through the structure and physiology of root and stem and leaf and blossom to acorn again. Very minute descriptions are given of the microscopic structure of the wood and bark, and many figures are inserted to illustrate what is said. The few original figures are clear, and easy to understand; but some of those which are borrowed from German publications are indistinct, especially as to the reference-letters along the margin. One chapter treats of the cultivation of the tree and of the diseases and injuries to which it is liable. In the last chapter it is revealed that the oak is, after all, only one of some 300 species of the genus; it is, however, the only British species, and therefore it is here treated as if it stood alone in its arboreal glory. The oaks of North America are many, and furnish various diversities in leaf, wood, bark, fruit, etc.; but all this must be already well understood by any one who has technical learning enough to read this 'Popular Introduction.'

Considering the number of Swiss who write French, the contributions of the Swiss to French literature are surprisingly few. Calvin, Voltaire, Rousseau, Sainte-Beuve, Amiel, and Scherer have all more or less connection with Geneva itself, or with Lausanne. Marc Monnier was a Swiss, and so is M. Cherbuliez. But the showing is not impressive, and any recruit is welcome. Doubly welcome is a recruit so well armed as M. Édouard Rod, and so skilled in the art. M. Rod is a professor at the University of Geneva; he is also a novelist, and he is a critic singularly acute in the discussion of literature from its ethical side, as becomes a fellow-townsman of Calvin and Rousseau. His volume of essays on 'Les Idées Morales du Temps Présent' has reached a third edition; and now he has written the volume on Stendhal for M. Jusserand's always admirable series, "Les Grands Écrivains Français." Although M. Rod does not seem to be aware of the biography of Henri Beyle, published in England twenty years or so ago by Mr. A. A. Paton, he has not neglected the diaries recently issued in Paris, and these have helped him in the portraying of a character sufficiently remarkable to be worthy of study and analysis. Stendhal, unsuccessful in his own generation, comforted himself by the assurance that he would be popular in 1880, and, oddly enough, it was about 1880 that the 'Chartreuse de Parme' and 'Le Rouge et le Noir' had their vogue, now already somewhat abated. M. Rod's book is a little cold-blooded, perhaps, but eminently careful, critical, sane.

The nine-sheet contoured map of the United States, prepared by the Geological Survey last summer, is now followed by a similar map on a single sheet and smaller scale. Like its predecessor, it is extremely convenient in looking up the approximate altitude of any part of the country, and will doubtless be made good use of by geographical publishers. An edition without lettering, to serve as a base map in various geological studies, presents an instructive picture of our country. Mr. Henry Gannett, geographer to the Survey, under whose direction these maps have been prepared, has just issued a second edition of his 'Dictionary of Altitudes' (Bulletin 76), in which the heights of all determined towns and mountains in the United States are given in alphabetical order —a very serviceable compilation. The topographical sheets of the different parts of the country, made in Mr. Gannett's division of the Geological Survey, are unfortunately not issued as yet for public distribution, but are prepared only to serve as base for geological coloring later on. A large number of these sheets have now been lithographed in excellent form, and embody a fund of geographical information nowhere else to be found.

The generous proportions and range of the first number of the *New World* (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) give promise of a distinct addition to theological literature of the quarterly genus, and demonstrate, as do the statistics of publishers, that the theological stage of human culture has taken much more time to pass away than Comte gave it.

The Senate of the University of St. Andrews has decided to admit women to the departments of theology, art, and sciences. The fact that this, the most venerable institution of learning in Scotland, opens its doors to women almost at the same time with Yale's decision that hereafter all postgraduate courses in her academic department shall be open to them, illustrates the international quality of advance movements. So also does the selection by the Royal University of Ireland of two women as cadet members of its faculty. Miss Mary Story, M.A., the new assistant examiner in French at the Royal University, entered it in 1882, carried off "honors" at successive examinations, until in 1889, at the University's M.A. examination, she scored first place—first-class honors in modern literature, and the £500 scholarship, the highest award in the gift of the University. This year her brilliant talents have received a by no means tardy recognition at the hands of her Alma Mater, through her appointment to a post not before held by a woman. Miss Margaret Kerr Johnston, M.A., the new assistant examiner in physics, with a scarcely less brilliant record, matriculated at the Royal University in 1884, and graduated as M.A. in 1888. Since then her post-graduate work at the College of Science, Dublin, has been of so high a grade as to secure from her former teachers the unusual recognition of an invitation to take a place in their ranks.

Our notice last week of G. Holden Pike's Life of Spurgeon was incorrect in saying that it contained no mention of the "Down-Grade Controversy." Spurgeon is quoted characteristically with reference to that matter on pages 338–9.

—The most notable article in the April *Atlantic*, on "Federal Taxation of Lotteries," by Judge Cooley, has already been noticed in these columns. Another interesting political subject is taken up by the writer of the unsigned short political papers, which have deservedly attracted wide attention. He writes a few pages in this number on our method of electing Congressmen, and advocates a simple modification of the reform proposed by Thomas Hare, by means of which representation must always be in proportion to the votes cast. The scheme has for its end what is commonly known as minority representation, and the argument is derived mainly from an analysis of the working of the present system, showing that each party suffers in turn from what the writer styles "the legal disfranchisement" of their voters. Thus in 1888 in thirteen States the Democrats polled 41 per cent. of the votes, but secured only 13 8-10 per cent. of the Representatives; they got 13 Congressmen when they were entitled to 41. In 1890 in thirteen States the Republicans polled 41 per cent. of the votes and got 10 per cent. of the Representatives; they got 12 Congressmen when they were entitled to 48. In 1888 the Democrats of seven States polled 38 5-10 per cent. of the vote and got no Congressmen, though they were entitled to 10. On such facts as these the writer affirms that our present system results not in representation, but in gross misrepresentation. The system he proposes avoids some of the difficulties of that advanced by Hare, and certainly presents the measure in a simplified form. A third interesting article urges the study of literature upon the ministry with a frankness and emphasis proportioned to what the author thinks the necessity of the case; and it must be said that he presents both the case and the remedy in a very lively way. "Some Notes on French Impressionism," by Cecilia Waern, describes the aim and work of a portion of modern French art in a sympathetic and illuminating

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way. Of the remaining articles the characterization of Admiral Farragut deserves special mention.

—The *Century* contains a variety of articles of very even interest. The leading paper, upon "Our Common Roads," which is elaborately illustrated, is of most practical value; but those upon "The Mother and Birth-Place of Washington," "The Total Solar Eclipses of 1889," "Fishing for Pearls in Australia," and "The Ocean Postal Service," are all papers of real value. Artists and students of the fine arts will find in Mr. Edward Robinson's discussion, "Did the Greeks Paint their Sculptures?" an extended examination of this question, and can hardly resist the conclusions advanced on the affirmative side. It must remain doubtful how far this use of color was a tradition and should be regarded as an adverse but socially necessary condition under which the Greek love of pure form was obliged to find expression. The friends whom Wolcott Balestier has made by his writings will find an appreciative memorial sketch of him by Edmund Gosse, which will quicken regret for the early death of this talented American.

—*Harper's* makes a contribution to Shelley literature by the hand of Signor Biagi, who has searched the State archives of Lucca and Florence for the official documents relating to the burning of Shelley's body at Viareggio, and has succeeded in identifying the spot on which the cremation took place by the testimony of eight witnesses of the scene who still survive. The text of the paper is largely made up of the well-known passages from the recollections of Mary Shelley and of Trelawny, nor do the new documents add much, except in the way of minute detail, to what we already possess; but the identification of the locality is important for the sake of the memorial to be erected at Viareggio on the poet's centenary. It is interesting to learn that the burning of the body gave rise to an oath among the fishermen: "May I be burnt like the *Ingresi* [*sic*] at Du' Fossi!" One of the witnesses also said that it was believed "that when the ashes were taken to England, the dead came to life again." In the remainder of the number the most entertaining paper is Mr. Eugene Lawrence's account of the alleged connection of Columbus with the pirates who preyed on the Venetian commerce, and of the mediæval traits of his personality in general. Mr. Julian Ralph contributes two papers, one on Lake Superior, the other on municipal administration in the West. The English public schools give occasion for an educational article. In the "Study" Mr. Warner begins his new duties with an appreciation and literary notice of Lounsbury's 'Chaucer.'

—*Scribner's* begins the long-promised series of special papers on the condition of the poor in the great cities of the world. The first article, which is well illustrated, is concerned with the "Social Awakening in London," and reviews in succession the various movements in which philanthropy takes form there. The work of the churches is touched upon, and the extent to which intelligence has leavened the methods of the new missionaries is strikingly shown by the single detail that one of the high ritualistic churches in a criminal part of London supports a boys' club in which prize sparring contests are the main feature. After the parish churches come the Salvation Army, the Holiday funds, the Food and Shelter depots, the University Settlements—which are the most picturesque element in the moral movement—the Polytechnics, of which we have before had a detailed account, the People's Palace, the artist propaganda through the Kyrle Club and Miss Octavia Hill, the more revolutionary preaching of the artistic and literary "proletariat," as it is called, and finally a new and sympathetic view of the great strike at the docks and the personal force of the leader of the strikers, John Burns. Here are a multitude of influences, not associated, but playing in favor of similar ends, and the further organization and outcome of it all will be watched with great interest. The stimulating and educating effect of these efforts in England must also be widely felt among ourselves and in other branches of the race. The only other specially noteworthy article is Senator Ross's vigorous account of the scene when he cast his vote, the deciding vote, in the case of the impeachment of Johnson.

—*Nature* of February 25 contains the translation of an article by M. Poincaré, formerly of Nancy, one of the most eminent of French mathematicians, in which the ground is taken that the axioms of geometry are only conventions, or definitions in disguise. But we are bound to say that the essay in question is very far from reaching the usual level of that accomplished mathematician, and betrays marks of having been written from a study of the subject not altogether ripe. If we may venture to say so, we do not think he is quite master of his Riemann in this particular direction. Every competent student has seen that if the terms of geometry, such as straight line, equal length, etc., are defined in a purely abstract manner, so as not to be essentially connected with any particular concrete experiences, then any propositions compounded of such terms can have no reference to experience. But Riemann supposes that these terms are defined by the motion of a body experientially determined to be rigid. This being done, propositions about such terms are statements of fact, and there is no room for conventions about them. There are many slips in Poincaré's paper which illustrate his hasty study of the subject. Thus, he states that in the elliptic geometry "there are exceptional cases where an infinite number of straight lines can be drawn between" two points. This is an error, for it would follow that any two straight lines lying in one plane intersect in two points, contrary to the definition of a straight line. In fact, those two points must be regarded as coinciding. In the ordinary Euclidian geometry, if we have an infinitely thin and infinitely extended sheet of paper, and if a straight line be drawn on that paper and extended without limit even at infinity, when it comes round into itself it will appear on the other side of the paper (as perspective will show). Now there is just as much ground for saying that that line must pass through infinity twice in order to return into itself, as there is for M. Poincaré's statement about elliptic space, for elliptic and parabolic space differ solely in their metric, and not in their intersectional properties. There are several other similar indications that Poincaré's views are not well digested. Thus, he says that if we had discovered that the parallaxes of a star could be negative, or else that they had an inferior positive limit, "we could either renounce Euclidian geometry, or modify the laws of optics, and admit that light is not propagated strictly in straight lines. It is useless to add that every one would regard the latter solution as preferable." But he does not observe that it would in that case not only be necessary to suppose that light was not propagated in straight lines, but also that the curvature of its path differed in different parts of space; and it can hardly be said that this supposition that different parts of space had different mechanical properties would be by "every one" regarded as preferable to supposing that space has everywhere the same properties—the supposition upon which the non-Euclidian geometry is founded.

CARSON'S SUPREME COURT—II.

The Supreme Court of the United States: Its History. By Hampton L. Carson of the Philadelphia Bar. And its Centennial Celebration February 4, 1890, prepared under direction of the Judiciary Centennial Committee. Philadelphia: John Y. Huber Co. 1891.

THE greatest and best services which the Supreme Court has rendered to the United States were rendered amidst the disturbing influences of political associations. There are decisions on Constitutional questions which depend on the previous political training of the judges and are known before they are pronounced. If they do nothing more nor less than record the political impressions of the men who make them, they are political and not judicial. Our State judiciaries have recorded many such. That the early judges of Washington and Adams would construe the Constitution according to Federal principles was inevitable; but there are two periods in the life of the Supreme Court when its decisions rose above the political training of the judges, and their results are inestimable.

At the time of the adoption of the Constitution there were two parties in the then "confederacy"—a party which was in favor of nationality through a federated, central, general Government, and a party which was opposed to it. Washington, who was then in that period of his life which may well be defined as our "First in War," saw with wonderful clearness and sagacity the realities which have not become visible to all Americans until our own day—the dissoluble nature of merely confederated States, and the absolute necessity of a national power based on a perpetual union. When he became President of the Convention, he entered upon his second period of "First in Peace." With him went by voluntary action all of the States of the Confederacy and a majority of the people. The establishment of a national Government was of necessity a surrender, more or less, of State authority.

When this governmental departure had been taken deliberately, voluntarily, and with the express consent of every State that chose to enter the new nationality, it was right and proper that the new national system should be organized and defined by those who had established it, and not by those who were still opposed to it. In other words, it was right that the Supreme Court should be composed of Federalists—that is to say, of men who believed in the new nationality, and not of men who thought it their mission to undo or belittle what had been done. Nevertheless, though composed of Federalists, it was the duty of the Court to be scrupulously judicial.

The three men who saw most clearly in the future the significant import of the judicial power were Washington, Jefferson, and Marshall. The first divined with profound wisdom at the very outset that in this the framers of the Constitution had "builded better

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than they knew," and that the Federal judiciary was the rock upon which a national Government must sooner or later rest. The second saw, but not so soon, that the Supreme Court, as organized by Washington, was a tremendous latent force, guarding the principle of nationality, which could become active and hurl back Presidents and Congresses whenever they approached the ark too closely. The third carried the work of Washington to a glorious completion, apprehending aright the greatness of his opportunity and the immense importance of his task; harassed, though scarcely baffled, in the later years of his life; rising always above the excitement or disappointment of the hour, and calmly establishing great principles which would be as enduring as the Constitution itself. It was during this period of interpretation that the judges of the Supreme Court for the most part rose above their own political training, and gave the country Constitutional decisions which were preëminently judicial.

The third period of Constitutional interpretation began with the departure of the great Chief Justice, or, rather, with the decision in the Mayor of New York vs. Miln (1837), when Marshall and Story were reversed by Taney and Barbour. It ended with the explosion in the Dred Scott case. From first to last the judicial weakness of the Court is demonstrated by its endless divisions. In every case where questions affecting our composite government were involved, the Court was divided in its conclusion, and, what is more significant, the majority were divided in the reasons on which their conclusion rested. The decision in the Passenger Cases (1849) is a lamentable, if not shameful, exhibition of judicial discord, which might well have set the world to asking whether the powers and functions of government can be subjects of judicial determination, and whether the Supreme Court really knew more about the Constitution than any other intelligent debating society. Mr. Carson, with all his reverence for the Court, sadly writes: "Such was the diversity and conflict of views, even among the judges concurring in the prevailing opinion, that the reporter frankly declares that 'there was no opinion of the Court as a court.'" Yet all of this turmoil was raised by the single, simple question whether a law of New York imposing a tax upon vessels for the passengers which they brought in was Constitutional. This lack of guiding and controlling principles must be ascribed to the fact that the greater part of the judges at last perceived that the Constitutional canons of construction, established by the Court prior to 1835, were vitally essential to the preservation of national authority, but nevertheless awkwardly endeavored to reconcile these new perceptions with their early political training upon State rights and strict construction; that they were weakly struggling to reconcile the irreconcilable, or to ride two horses in opposite directions at the same time. It also seems plain that the minority—the senior judges, Story and Wayne—in their sensitiveness at the overruling of the old principles, went too far in their attempted application of them; further than they would have gone if the strong and steady hand had been at the helm which previously had kept the vessel on her true course.

But let us look at the decision which closed the period, and which is unhappily characteristic of its Constitutional interpretations. It is now thirty-five years since (March 6, 1857) Chief-Justice Taney, "in a voice scarcely audible," as was said by the newspaper reporters at the time, read the opinion of the Supreme Court in the case of Dred Scott. Since then a combination of changes—social, political, Constitutional—has come to the American people, greater, probably, than ever befell another nation in a century. During the long interval we have learned to look calmly upon the passionate excitements of the former time; to look at them philosophically from our opponents' points of view. Approaching the decision now in this spirit, and hoping to find some justification that has heretofore been unperceived, we are constrained to say that it was a decision which ought never to have been made; a decision whose errors, when tried by judicial tests, appear to be without palliation. The decision in Chisholm v. Georgia was unfortunate, in the Passenger Cases lamentable, in Dred Scott reprehensible. We bear in mind the excellent personal character of every judge, the learning, ability, and general integrity of the men, the dignity of the Court; and yet we think that the decision is one which should never be forgiven. The reason for this severe conclusion is plain. If the novel and undefined, and consequently unknown, power of setting bounds to the legislative and executive acts of a nation is to be confided to a judicial tribunal, it is a vital condition to the exercise of that power that the tribunal be held to judicial action and upon strictly judicial principles.

In the midst of an intensely exciting political struggle, in which the ablest Americans of the day were exerting their utmost energies in research and argument, and in which the crucial question was whether the nation should thereafter allow the extension of slavery into territory then free by the admission of slave States, the Supreme Court deliberately went out of its way, after having once decided the suit before the Court in conference upon non-political grounds, and after having agreed upon an opinion which would have judicially disposed of the case, to pronounce a decision upon a point not necessarily or properly before the Court, which would render to the political party of the majority of the judges the greatest assistance that it was possible for a court to give; and the judges who united in the judgment based their momentous conclusion upon reasons or excuses so varied that they might be pronounced disgraceful for any court in any case. Mr. Lincoln well said, in his calm, logical way, in the Cooper Institute address:

"Waiving the lawyer's distinction between dictum and decision, the Court have decided the question for you in a sort of way. The Court have substantially said it is your Constitutional right to take slaves into the Federal territories, and to hold them there as property. When I say that the decision was made in a sort of way, I mean it was made in a divided court, by a bare majority of the judges, and they not agreeing with one another in the reasons for making it; that it is so made that its avowed supporters disagree with one another about its meaning, and that it was mainly based upon a mistaken statement of fact—the statement in the opinion that 'the right of property in a slave is distinctly and expressly affirmed in the Constitution.' An inspection of the Constitution will show that the right of property in a slave is not '*distinctly* and *expressly* affirmed' in it. Bear in mind, the Judges do not pledge their judicial opinion that such right is *impliedly* affirmed in the Constitution; but they pledge their veracity that it is *distinctly* and *expressly* affirmed there—'distinctly,' that is, not mingled with anything else; 'expressly,' that is, in words meaning just that without the aid of any inference, and susceptible of no other meaning." (The italics are Mr. Lincoln's.)

In a word, the majority of the Supreme Court set themselves up as five judicial statesmen whose discordant fiat should so completely fetter a great nation that, if the Legislatures of all the States and the Congress of the General Government should unanimously unite in voting to exclude slavery from the national territory, their statutes would be nugatory and void. The five judges substantially said: "The States cannot legislate for the Territories; and the General Government cannot legislate against slavery. We declare the people of the United States to be without power in this matter. Slavery is an institution above the control of Federal law, and, until the Territories becomes States, is free to go where it pleases." And this monstrous assumption of authority was confessedly to extinguish the political agitation of the time.

The best, and clearest, and most incisive analysis ever made of the Dred Scott decision was by John A. Andrew while a member of the Massachusetts Legislature. Mr. Carson has stated the case fairly; his explanatory comments show much painstaking investigation; he quotes the adverse comments of such Democrats as the late Clarkson N. Potter, and he censures the decision himself in a temperate way; but it would have been better for the book, if not for the decision, had he taken Gov. Andrew's analysis, or at least set it forth as a footnote.

The fourth period of Constitutional construction is the second one which revives the confidence of thinking men in the possibility of a judicial tribunal sitting as a supreme arbiter of national questions and determining them judicially. Until the Dred Scott decision there had been but one act of Congress declared unconstitutional. Since that time Federal legislation has received many and severe blows. But the remarkable and cheering facts are (1) that these blows came from a court composed almost entirely of judges who owed their appointments to the party which made the enactments that the Court condemned; and (2) that many of the decisions were rendered, against the embittered public sentiment of the hour, in favor of an unfortunate and conquered people. Some of these decisions conflict with the intuitions of common sense; some push a principle to an absurd extreme; some betray the irritation of conflicting opinions within the tribunal; yet, nevertheless, they will stand as noble efforts of an independent tribunal to maintain the local authority of State Governments and to uphold the weak against the strong.

In dealing with this period, Mr. Carson's hand grows weary—perhaps because of the number of the cases, perhaps because it was weighted with the discouraging sense of his readers' knowing too much of the subject. His comments are generally case by case, and rarely bring into view the relations of things as in the previous periods of Constitutional interpretation. The decisions in regard to pardon and amnesty form a novel and interesting chapter in our Constitutional history. In at least one instance a statute was held to be unconstitutional because it denied to a pardon produced in a civil suit the full effect which it was the prerogative of the President to impart to it; and in many instances an effect was ascribed to pardons or amnesty proclamations which entirely negatived the intent of statutes. The Court adopted the fiction of early English cases, upholding the prerogative of the Crown, that an unconditional pardon closes the eyes of the judges to the offence as completely as if it had never been committed; and applied the doctrine on the civil side of litigation so that in closing its eyes to the crime the Court could

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not behold the fact. This swept away in an instant the distinctions which Congress had carefully and properly made between those who had, and those who had not, given aid to the rebellion; and it awarded to the enemies of the Government the benefits which Congress had carefully reserved to its adherents. Mr. Carson does not bring this out; and, while mentioning most of the cases, he omits, both from his text and table of cases, the short but notable decision in Armstrong's Foundry, where a pardon granted after judgment was brought into court and used to reverse the case.

In the novel application of other principles to the affairs of the civil war, the Supreme Court also seems to have lost its head; and notably in the non-intercourse cases, where refinements resulted in irreparable injustice to Northern creditors, and opinions sound much more like mediæval law than like common sense of this century. The artificial reasoning was carried to an absurd length, and ended in the wild conclusions that a Confederate officer marching with the Confederate army in Confederate territory, whose legal domicile happened to be in New Orleans, was (constructively) an enemy of the Confederate citizens around him; while a Union soldier shooting rebels, whose domicile happened to be within the Confederate lines, was (constructively) their friend (Desmare v. The United States, 93 U. S. Rep. 605; United States v. Quigley, 103 id. 595). With regard to pardon and amnesty we may also note a case where the fiction of a court not seeing an offence led to the logical result that if the plaintiff had been guilty of treason he could recover against the Government itself, but if he had violated no law, he could not receive the assistance of the Court (Carlisle v. The United States, 16 Wallace R. 147).

It is not the purpose of Mr. Carson's work to criticise the Supreme Court, to magnify its errors or bring into view its shortcomings; yet there are some things which he might well have made the subject of respectful remonstrance. Of these we note the pernicious practice of affirmance by a divided court. Two cases precisely alike go up at slightly different times. The judgment in the first is affirmed by the equal division of the eight judges who happen to be on the bench; the *plaintiff* wins, and the defendant loses, and is without remedy. The second is decided by a full bench and is reversed; the *defendant* wins, and the result is the exact opposite of the previous judgment. Such decisions by the court of last resort bring reproach upon the law, and make the administration of justice a lottery.

In reviewing the century of decisions it also becomes plain that not the least act of Marshall's wisdom was his bringing the Court into a dignified state of silence and reticence, and making it speak, not by one organ, but with one voice. The discordant dissensions of the judges since Taney went upon the bench are evidences of inherent weakness, and are not suggestive of high intellectual reasoning, nor of dispassionate, unbiassed judgment. The multiplicity of ambitious opinions goes far to account for the arrears of the docket. It is plain that the best energies of the men have been expended, not in doing the work of the Court, but in proving that everybody else was wrong. A small, mild-mannered judicial mob, hurling conflicting opinions at each other, destroys a belief in the reality of the law, and makes the unprofessional world doubt whether the judges know more of the law than they do themselves.

A disregard of the principle of *stare decisis* is undoubtedly the greatest evil of the American bench. It is the offspring of egotism and dogmatism; the result of putting loosely trained lawyers upon the bench, having little reverence and much arrogance, and the mischievous vanity of thinking that they know more than all the men who have gone before them. When the law has been declared by the court of last resort, it is the law, and is as obligatory upon judges as upon Presidents. It then passes out of the domain of judicature and can be altered only by the law-making power. A legislative alteration causes no wrong, for all men know it; but a judicial alteration is an *ex post facto* law. The Supreme Court has not been above this; and it would be an interesting question in speculative philosophy whether the sorrows and sufferings and losses of the civil war are not directly attributable to it. Certain it is that if Marshall and his first associates could have lived a generation longer, the idea of secession and rebellion would have seemed as impossible to the public of 1861 as it seems to us in 1892. The principles laid down by the Supreme Court in the first third of the century necessitated a national Government and indissoluble Union; rebellion against the principle of *stare decisis* opened the gate to the throng of troubles which we trust have for ever passed away. There can be no graver offence in one who administers the law, short of actual criminality, than the conduct of Mr. Justice Baldwin, as detailed by himself and quoted by Mr. Carson (p. 280). But the Supreme Court has given one admirable example of what judges should do in the interesting and remarkable case of La Peyre (17 Wallace, 191), which, we regret to add, Mr. Carson seems to have overlooked.

A single question, absolutely new, was involved—whether a proclamation of the President took effect at the time of its date or of its publication. The Court, being divided and in doubt, did precisely what a court should do in such a case, ordered a reargument. Finally, four of the judges agreed in the opinion of Mr. Justice Swayne, that the proclamation took effect from its date, and four in the opinion of Mr. Justice Hunt, that it took effect from its publication. The ninth member of the Court agreed only in the conclusion of Mr. Justice Swayne. Here, then, was a tribunal as evenly divided as it was possible for a court of nine members to be; yet, having done all that was possible to attain unanimity, and having reached a decision, the Court refused in subsequent cases to reconsider the question, and unanimously enforced the law as it had been declared.

The chief defect in Mr. Carson's work is a lack of precision which the general reader may not observe, but which is annoying to the historical or professional student. The death of Chief-Justice Marshall was one of the great events in the history of the Court. We turn where the index directs us, to find that at the time of his death "three cases of unusual importance and interest were pending." We turn back and find nothing more than that "in the following summer Chief-Justice Marshall died." We search for the year that preceded this "summer," and the first which is named specifically is 1831. We wish to know when Rutledge resigned his commission as Associate Judge, and why; and all that we can find is (p. 161): "In the meantime John Rutledge had resigned," and again (p. 183).: "Rutledge had resigned after a few months of service on the circuit." Georgia and Pennsylvania both forcibly resisted the mandate of the Supreme Court. We look in the index, and find "Georgia, Defiance of, to decisions of the Supreme Court"; but under "Pennsylvania" the only entry is, "controversy between, and Connecticut." The index, moreover, does not embrace the commentaries of the very able lawyers whose addresses are no unimportant part of the book.

Mr. Carson's work is not a philosophical treatise on the Supreme Court, and it is well that it is not, for the philosophical writer is a man of theories, and arrays his facts to sustain them. This book is more properly a narrative in which the facts are stated clearly and with admirable fairness, the author being manifestly happy in bringing into view the strongest and best reasoning of either side. Mr. Carson, indeed, has written with entire frankness and without apology or excuse, from a Federalist point of view; and in this he has done well. The State-rights doctrine is now a thing of the past, a speculative idea, as completely behind us as the Articles of Confederation. No one accustomed to tracing causes and effects can look over the historic field and fail to see that the Government of Jefferson was a government of conflicting sovereignties, with the immediate effect that every citizen was called upon to serve two masters, to hold to the one and despise the other, and with the inevitable result that, sooner or later, the conflicting interests of a vast territory would rend the Government in twain. And he cannot fail to see that the Constitution of Marshall is the only bond which the human understanding has yet devised sufficiently strong to withstand the strain; sufficiently flexible to commit local affairs to local administration; fully adapted to the widely extended sovereignty of a free people, and able to develop and maintain the closer union of our modern civilization.

Two Happy Years in Ceylon. By C. F. Gordon-Cumming. Illustrated by the Author. 2 vols. 8vo. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

THIS title-page will remind most people of the Gordon-Cumming who was so prominent in the baccarat scandal of the Prince of Wales, and the more as it hides the author's sex. The truth is that the letters C. F. are the initials of Constance Frederica, and the authoress is an aunt of the noble and notorious gambler. Lady Cumming's book has 880 pages, and so would have made the ancient cynic cry out, "A great book a great bore!" India hangs down into the equatorial ocean, as it were a stalactite from the roof of a cave, while Ceylon is a fragment dropping off of it. Were the rest of Victoria's Oriental empire treated on a scale commensurate with Lady Cumming's Ceylon, the volumes would run up far into the second hundred, and it would be doubly true that "the world could not contain the books that would be written."

When we examine the grand book on Ceylon, we cease to wonder at its bulk. Its framework is the details of journeys by steamers, boats of all sizes, carriages, bullock-carts, etc., to all parts of the island except the extreme north. The date of these tours, hidden all through the first volume, we at last discover to have been 1872 and 1873. But the fates and fortunes of the places visited during these "two happy years" are described through the two decades which have since elapsed. These descriptions are supplemented by a score and more of intermingled monographs. Some of these are on the fauna and flora. Others are on races and religions; on economic possibilities of many plants, animals, and industries; the rise and fall of coffee and many other cultures; the vicissitudes of cocoa-nut-raising; salt-making in lagoons, and gem-

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hunting in mines. As the author was not a huntress, she gives a zest to her narrative by twenty pages from the diary of her brother, who had been a Nimrod among the island tigers "about the time of her introduction to 'Robinson Crusoe.'" When the lady's pilgrimage brought her to a tank, she launched out in an account of that sort of reservoir in all ages and down to the restorations of most recent years. She met a botanist, and seems to have stolen his herbal. A herpetologist allowed her to copy from him something concerning seventy-nine snakes and all the other island reptiles. She was a guest of the Chief of Police, who "talked shop" to her till she had filled thirty pages with a sketch of his department (ii., 242-272). The last eighty-six pages contain historical and statistical notices of Christian missions, and in almost every preceding chapter we find pages regarding the colonies, wars, and administrations of Portuguese, Dutch, and English. In addition to this, well-nigh every subject is shown as related by way of resemblance or contrast to something of the sort in all the continents. More than thirty foot-notes refer to others of the lady's books of travel.

The contents, then, of Lady Cumming's volumes forbid us to marvel at their magnitude. Their multifariousness, however, forces us to say that her production is worthy of a more pretentious title. Such a name as "The Ceylonese Encyclopædia (or Pancyclopædia)" would befit it well. Nobody can read a chapter without feeling that he has been learning something he is glad to know, and which he would despair of finding in any other book. A good index also facilitates turning again to every notable passage as to which a reader may wish to refresh his memory.

Lady Cumming is preëminently an artist in water-colors. Her rule was never to let a day pass without a sketch. Her journal shows how religiously she adhered to this rule in spite of obstacles which none but an enthusiast could surmount. Three score of her Ceylonese paintings selected from several hundreds were exhibited at the South Kensington Museum, and not a few of them engraved in these volumes are well described in her letter-press. The minute peculiarities of the island life in costume, monuments, house-building and furnishing, festivals, pilgrimages, have never been caught by a more inevitable eye or set forth in more apt words. Nothing could be more charming than to hear Lady Cumming expatiating—no matter in what long-drawn gossip—upon her sketches, say of Adam's Peak, or of her double canoe, or Anuradhapura.

The story of her pilgrimage to Adam's Peak and climb to its topmost pinnacle—7,352 feet—fills thirty-five pages, and shows how zealously and adroitly she pursued knowledge under difficulties. Adam's foot-print, which Hindus, Moslems, and Christians all reverence, is on the top of the topmost rock and jealously guarded all day. Having seen many copies of this famous relic, she was determined to ascertain its exact length. Stealing out of her camp after dark, she found the sacred summit deserted by the guards, and hastened to stretch herself in the hollow of the holy print. Its length was four and one half inches more than that of her whole body, and therefore she says "exactly six feet." We thus learn the stature of Lady Cumming to be considerably taller than that of the Medicean Venus. Her age she does not tell us, but it will gratify some readers to know that it is now fifty-five years.

After all, the saying of Hesiod proves true, that "half is more than the whole," and that "he is a fool who does not know it." Much of the two volumes strikes the reader as padding—new patches on an old garment. In speaking of a mountain retreat, where she sketched, Lady Cumming "uses vain repetitions as the heathen do." Within twenty-two lines she specifies the names of thirty-five flowers which perfumed it. A score, or at least a dozen, of these flowers form a series again and again in other descriptions, till, even if a reader does not skip them, they make no impression on him. How would it fare with Abraham in Holy Writ if his name were always weighted with all the generations from Adam, Seth, Enos? Had *Dogberry* known what was meant by *tedious*, he could not have found it in his heart to bestow all his tediousness as a boon. Never was Voltaire more inspired than when he said, "The secret of being dull is to say everything."

Dates in the 'Two Happy Years' are too often lacking or incorrect. One of the first given is May 20, 1890. On that day, it is said, "two Japanese men-of-war came into Colombo conveying the survivors of a wrecked Turkish ship, the *Ertugroul*, back to their own country." But that ship was not wrecked till the 16th of September following. Again: "The Portuguese arrived in Ceylon in the middle of the *fifteenth* century." Their coming was not till the second decade in the sixteenth. The area of Ceylon is said to be 25,000 square miles, and to be "as large as Ireland"—which has 32,535 square miles. The contradiction as to the variations in the length of days is equally remarkable. Regarding "toddy" it is said "to have been doubtless so named by some early Scotch planter in remembrance of the whiskey toddy of the North." But Sir T. Herbert found the word toddy well known in the East in 1665, before any Scotchman had ever landed in Ceylon. The word cactuses sometimes occurs, but the form cactii, which is neither Latin nor English, is more frequent. On the other hand, Lady Cumming's classification of the banyan seems more correct than that of Dr. Murray in the elaborate 'New Dictionary,' which calls it, *Ficus religiosa*, or *Indica*. She calls it *Indica* alone, and says that the Bo-tree is the *religiosa*. So says also Dr. Murray under the word Bo-tree, being divided against himself.

On the whole, the Gordon-Cumming tomes, in spite of their bulk, will long be a standard work on Ceylon. Her testimony that inundation follows conflagration (ii., 308) is one specimen of hundreds of impartial observations incidentally put on record, but effective for instruction to readers the world over. Did space allow, we would dilate on others, as sects divided by covering one shoulder or both with a mantle; lower castes forbidden to carry umbrellas; meritorious water-jars for wayfarers; and the British Government so fearful of intolerance as actually to bolster up heathenism. But these points, and many more, to be appreciated must be read as portrayed with feminine grace and masculine vigor by the wide-wandering authoress.

Tales and Legends of National Origin or Widely Current in England from Early Times. With Critical Introductions by W. Carew Hazlitt. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1892. 8vo, pp. xv., 486.

Out of the storehouse of a veteran book-maker Mr. Hazlitt has made a volume which is interesting and which might easily have been made valuable. The nature of the work is sufficiently indicated by the title, and the contents are arranged in the four classes of supernatural legends, feudal and forest legends, romantic legends, and descriptive and humorous legends. The sources from which the material is taken are definitely noted in scarcely a single instance, so that the work possesses no bibliographical value whatever. As a matter of fact, the author has drawn largely from his own 'Remains of the Early Popular Poetry of England,' 'Old English Jest-Books,' Mr. Thoms's 'Early English Prose Romances,' and Percy's 'Reliques.' A considerable number of legends have been reduced to prose from metrical versions. This may perhaps be permissible in a work intended for the general reader in case the originals are difficult of comprehension; but not seldom in the present work a slight modernization of the original would have been far preferable to Mr. Hazlitt's prose, and would have possessed some literary value. One needs only to compare Mr. Hazlitt's "The Child of Bristol" (p. 6) with the slightly modernized version of the original, privately printed in 1886 by Prof. F. J. Child, to see how easily the beautiful old ballad can be made intelligible and attractive.

Each legend is prefaced by a brief introduction, in which the author's incompetence to handle such topics is revealed in every line. It is melancholy to find that all the work done in the field of folk-lore within the past twenty-five years seems to be unknown to Mr. Hazlitt. His remarks on the "Roman or Italian origin" of the myth of Virgil show how far he is behind the recent investigations in this field: Mr. Tunison's 'Master Virgil' would have saved him this fundamental error. An amusing example of the author's ignorance of comparative storiology is shown in what he says about "The Smith and his Dame." This story belongs to the extensive class of legends relating to the mythical journeys of our Lord and his apostles, found in every land, of which a number are given in Crane's 'Italian Popular Tales' (p. 187). The story is briefly that of an overproud blacksmith whose bedridden mother Christ brings back to youth by laying her on the forge and hammering her out. The ambitious smith endeavors to perform a similar feat on his own wife, with lamentable results. Here is what Mr. Hazlitt finds to say on the subject, without a single reference to any other version of the legend: "This is one of those strange inventions which belong to the period of transition from Eastern fable and mediæval demonology to a revival of the miraculous intervention of Christ in response to prayer. Of course, one can only look on such a narrative as a piece of whimsicality, since the central incident at once removes it out of the category of prodigies accomplished by leechdom or legerdemain. To the Elizabethan reader, for whom the little tale was written, the particulars may have presented nothing beyond a humorous exercise of fancy. The serious side was not considered." It will probably do no good to protest against the slipshod work done by Mr. Hazlitt in this and other books of his; but the "general reader" may perhaps be awakened to a sense of the rights which even he possesses, and be led to insist upon them with both editor and publisher.

Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria. From the French of G. Maspéro. New York: Appletons. 1892. 12mo, pp. xv., 376.

The topics here presented are neither new nor hackneyed, in spite of the fact that we have a number of volumes dealing with them. The

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three large volumes of Wilkinson in their own way cover nearly all the ground of the present work and more besides. The popular though scholarly work of Prof. Erman of Berlin, while entirely complete in itself, was intended in considerable degree to supplement the older volumes of Wilkinson. Unfortunately it is accessible only in German. Other minor books of similar character might be mentioned in the same connection. But a distinction must be made between the works of Wilkinson and those of Erman and Maspéro. The main value of the former's lies in its illustrations and in the information derived from Greek writers. Originally it contained very little material based upon or derived from Egyptian sources and inscriptions, other than the pictures as such. The works of the others contain fewer illustrations, but present information of a more authentic character, since to their authors the inscriptions are an open book. In other words, they have built upon the statements of the monuments while ignoring more or less the reports of the Greek writers. Hence it is evident that works of both classes are necessary to a complete understanding, since they are mutually complementary.

The volume before us is popular in its aim and its style is correspondingly animated and vivid. Of the eminent qualifications of the author in point of knowledge so far as Egypt is concerned, it is needless to speak; and it will surprise no one that a Frenchman should have a large degree of tact and skill in presenting such a subject. The narrative will be found not only readable, but calculated to impart an extraordinary amount of minute information in brief compass. Hence when the volume is said to be popular, it is not intended that it is superficial. It is well illustrated in the best sense, since to a considerable degree the text is an exposition of what the contemporaneous monuments here depicted both say and portray. The periods chosen for treatment are those of Rameses II., supposed to have been that of the "Oppression" of the children of Israel in Egypt, and that of Assurbanipal, who carried Manasseh in chains to Babylon—the fourteenth and the seventh centuries B. C. respectively. It is to be hoped that the publishers will supply the grievous lack of an adequate index, when another edition is called for.

The Evolution of Life; or, Causes of Change in Animal Forms: A Study in Biology. By Hubbard Winslow Mitchell, M.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891. 8vo, pp. xvi, 460, illustrated.

DR. MITCHELL'S book is an addition to popular literature on evolution. It is a story of the earth and its life from its gaseous to its present condition, with a "terrestrial and cosmogenic prognosis." On a superficial inspection its elegant appearance and numerous illustrations give rise to expectations that are disappointed by a closer examination. Things that can only be conjectures asserted as facts, reckless assumptions, and evidences of carelessness prevent the anticipated enjoyment. Many of the drawings are old acquaintances, from unacknowledged sources. Figure 72, here upside down, is No. 792 B. of Dana's 'Manual of Geology' (1864); figure 34 is composed of Dana's figures 708 to 713; and figure 33, called a "Saurian skeleton found in the coal measures of Ohio," contains Dana's 549 and 604, the former being the tracks of *Sauropus primævus* from the subcarboniferous at Pottsville, Pa., and the latter the skeleton of *Raniceps Lyellii* from the carboniferous at Linton, O., both of them batrachian remains. Figure 81 represents a mylodon, but has all of its claws of about the same size; figure 84 is an armadillo with all of its feet off the ground, trotting on the tips of its claws; and figure 42 is a jurassic ammonite floating above the water like a cork. Figure 35 is named "Selachian (shark) of the Devonian Age — *Spinax Blainvillii.*" The author says of it:

"In the species of Devonian fish known as *Spinax Blainvillii* the dorsal vertebrae are very numerous, and the body is long and slender. There is a small pectoral fin which is almost wholly tegumentary, while the true ventral fins are much larger, and have traces of cartilaginous rays. As this animal raised its head above the water in the shallow bays and inlets where it lived, the pectoral fin through disuse would become slowly atrophied and in time disappear. The ventral fins would develop into paddles in the manner already described, and the long anterior portion of the body, through successive generations of development and the survival of the fittest, ultimately become the enlongated neck of the plesiosaurus. This view seems at once both scientific and logical, and answers all the requirements."

The figure represents a nondescript with three gill-openings, an anal fin, no dorsal spines, no lower lobe to the tail, and ventrals larger than the pectorals. But *Spinax Blainvillii* is a recent shark, now living in the Mediterranean, not known as a fossil, and has five gill-openings, a strong spine in front of each dorsal, a lower lobe on the caudal, no anal fin, and pectorals larger than the ventrals. Further than this, scientists believe that the fore limbs of the quadruped correspond to the pectoral fins of some fish-like ancestor, and that the hind limbs were derived from the ventrals. Spinax is not addicted to raising its head out of the water.

Lingula appears to do duty as a protozoan; Notosaurus, crocodilus, and alligator are badly mixed, and *Alligator mississippiensis* is said to occur in great numbers on the Amazon. On page 8 Arcturus is nearing us about five miles per second; on page 447, it is approaching our sun four miles per second. Page 9 informs us that "the essential qualities of space are *cold* and *darkness.* If it were light and warm, the phenomena we now observe in the universe would not only at once cease to exist, but would never have occurred." From page 36 we learn that the Silurian Sea was placid and undisturbed, unruffled by winds or currents, and "no surging tides existed, no surf beat upon the shore." Since the earth began to rotate upon its axis and felt the attraction of sun and moon, it is not possible that it has been without tides. With tides, and the electrical disturbances and torrential rains mentioned by the author, it is difficult to believe in the absence of currents either in or above the water.

To the question of man's origin, it is stated: "The answer is simple. There was but one animal from which he could have descended—that was the great man-like ape, the gorilla, of equatorial Africa." "According to this view, which seems to me to admit of no doubt whatever, the extensive and agreeable region of tropical Africa lying north of the equator was the only place where *man first appeared upon the earth.*" "It is not probable that man will undergo any anatomical changes of form in the future. He has undoubtedly reached the highest point possible in his *structural* development." "But that any new or different animal form will ever appear is so improbable that we are safe in pronouncing it impossible." "We can safely assert, however, that the processes of evolution have ceased, and that no new animal form will ever appear upon the earth." "The time is not far distant when no animal will be found outside a menagerie who cannot be utilized either by the yoke or the spit. Every one beside must give way ultimately to the civilizing influences man is slowly but surely extending over every province of the earth." We question the statement that scientists generally admit that man could only have descended from the gorilla; what is admitted is that the two had a common ancestor. In the interest of popular science it is to be regretted that a book so well calculated to win popular fancy was not more carefully compiled.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, Wilbur. Farming Corporations. W. Aldrich & Co. $1.
Arnold, Sir Edwin. The Light of Asia. Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Baedeker's Upper Egypt. Leipzig: Karl Baedeker; New York; Scribners. $3.
Baldwin, Prof. James. Everybody's Writing-Desk Book. Harpers.
Bernhard, Marie. The Household Idol. Worthington Co.
Boldrewood, Rolf. Nevermore. Macmillan. $1.
Bottone, S. R. A Guide to Electric Lighting; for the Use of Householders and Amateurs. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Brooks, Shirley. Mrs. Lygon. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co. 50 cents.
Cheney, J. V. The Golden Guess: Essays on Poetry and the Poets. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Cheney, S. P. Wood Notes Wild: Notations of Bird Music. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.
Clarke, Kit. The Practical Angler. American News Co.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. Love-Letters of a Worldly Woman. Harpers.
Cook, Theodore A. Old Touraine: The Life and History of the Famous Châteaux of France. 2 vols. Scribners. $5.
Daudet, A. Rose et Ninette. Paris: E. Flammarion; New York: Westermann. $1.
Davidson, Rev. A. B. Ezekiel. [Cambridge Bible.] Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Davies, Charles. New Elementary Algebra. American Book Co. 90 cents.
Earle, Prof. J. The Deeds of Beowulf. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Engels, Frederick. The Condition of the Working Classes in England in 1844. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Englemann, R., and Anderson, W. C. F. Pictorial Atlas to Homer's Iliad and Odyssey. Westermann & Co.
Etting, F. M. Independence Hall. 2d ed. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Fane, Violet. Memoirs of Marguerite de Valois, Queen of Navarre. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Scribners. $5.
Fiske, John. The Discovery of America. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Flammarion, Camille. Lumen: Experiences in the Infinite. Cassell. 50 cents.
Furness, H. H. The Variorum Shakspere. Vol. IX. The Tempest. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $4.
Garland, Hamlin. A Member of the Third House. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co.
Goodfellow, John. The Dietetic Value of Bread. Macmillan. $1.50.
Guiney, Louise Imogen. Monsieur Henri: A Footnote to French History. Harpers.
Guyot, Yves. Principles of Social Economy. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Hepworth, George. The Life Beyond. Randolph. $1.
Hilliard, H. W. Politics and Pen Pictures at Home and Abroad. Putnams. $3.
Holbrook, M. L. The Hygienic Treatment of Consumption. M. L. Holbrook & Co. $2.
Hope, M. J. The Thoughts of Novalis. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.
Howard, Blanche W., and Sharp, William. A Fellowe and his Wife. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Howells, W. D. The Quality of Mercy. Harpers. $1.50.
Hughes, Rev. N. C. Genesis and Geology. 2d ed. James Pott & Co.
Inglis, Lady. The Siege of Lucknow. London: Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.; New York: Scribners. $4.
Jefferies, Richard. Red Deer. 2d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Johnson, Virginia W. The Treasure Tower. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Keene, H. G. Mádhava Ráo Sindia. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Kelly, Mrs. M. A. B. A Volume of Poems. Boston: J. G. Cupples.
Lanman, Prof. C. R. Harvard Oriental Series. Vol. I. The Jataka-Mala. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Larcom, Lucy. The Unseen Friend. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

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Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXX. Johnes—Kenneth. Macmillan. $3.75.
Levett, R., and Davison, C. The Elements of Plane Trigonometry. Macmillan. $1.60.
Leffingwell, Albert. Illegitimacy, and the Influence of Seasons upon Conduct. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Libbey, Laura J. Florabel's Lover; or, Rival Belles. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Liddon, Rev. H. P. Sermons on Some Words of Christ. Longmans, Green & Co.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 77, Jan.–April, 1892. Boston: Littell & Co.
Lock, Rev. J. B. The First Book of Euclid's Elements arranged for Beginners. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Luther's Bible. Im Auftrage der Deutschen Evangelischen Kirchenconferenz durchgesehene Ausgabe. Westermann & Co.
Macdonald, Greville. Diseases of the Nose. 2d ed. Macmillan.
Mahaffy, J. P. Problems in Greek History. Macmillan. $2.50.
Mallock, W. H. A Human Document. Cassell. 50 cents.
Manley, R. M. Some Children of Adam. Worthington Co.
Maurice, F. D. Lincoln's Inn Sermons. Vol. V. Macmillan. $1.25.
Maxwell, J. C. Theory of Heat. 10th ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Meredith, George. Modern Love. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Meredith, Owen. Marah. Longmans, Green & Co.
Mew, James, and Ashton, John. Drinks of the World. Scribners. $6.
Michel, Emile. Les Brueghel. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: Librairie de l'Art; New York: Macmillan.
Morley, Henry. English Writers. Vol. VIII. From Surrey to Spenser. Cassell. $1.50.
Morris, William. Poems by the Way. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Musick, T. H. The Genesis of Life and Thought. John B. Alden.
Needell, Mrs. J. H. The Story of Philip Methuen. Appletons.
Norton, S. F. The Men of Money Island; or, The Primer of Finance. Revised ed. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co.
Nutt, J. L. Newburgh: Her Institutions, Industries and Leading Citizens. Newburgh, N. Y.: Ritchie & Hull. $3.
Parker, Theodore. West Roxbury Sermons. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Peacock, T. L. The Misfortunes of Elphin. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Pearson, Prof. Karl. The Grammar of Science. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Phillips, Morris. Abroad and at Home: Practical Hints for Tourists. Brentano.
Phillpotts, Eden. Folly and Fresh Air. Harpers.
Robbins, Mary C. The Rescue of an Old Place. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ryle, Prof. H. E. The Canon of the Old Testament. Macmillan. $1.75.
Saintsbury, G. Political Pamphlets. Macmillan. $1.
Sayce, Prof. A. H. Records of the Past. Vol. 5. London: S. Bagster & Sons.
Schuyler, Montgomery. Studies in American Architecture. Harpers.
Scott, Prof. F. N. Spencer on the Philosophy of Style. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 45 cents.
Taylor, J. T. The Optics of Photography and Photographic Lenses. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Tennyson, Lord. The Foresters. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
The Fourth Gospel. Essays by Ezra Abbot, A. P. Peabody, and Bishop Lightfoot. Scribners. $1.50.
The Handbook Illustrated Dictionary of the English Language. Putnams. 75 cents.
The New Cabinet Cyclopedia and Treasury of Knowledge. 8 vols. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co.
The Penance of Portia James. U. S. Book Co. $1.
Three Hundred and Sixty-six Dinners. Putnams. $1.25.
Tillman, Prof. S. E. Elementary Lessons in Heat. 2d ed. John Wiley & Sons. $1.50.
Tincker, Mary A. San Salvador. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Trow's Copartnership and Corporation Directory of New York. 1892. Trow Directory Co. $5.
Twain, Mark. Merry Tales. Charles L. Webster & Co. 75 cents.
Walkley, A. B. Playhouse Impressions. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Ward, Prof. H. M. The Oak. [Modern Science Series.] Appletons.
War Papers and Personal Reminiscences, 1861-1865. Read before the Commandery of the State of Missouri, Military Order of the Loyal Legion. St. Louis: Becktold & Co.
Watson, William. Poems. Macmillan. $1.50.
White, Arnold. The Destitute Alien in Great Britain. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Wright, Prof. Joseph. A Primer of the Gothic Language. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Yechton, Barbara. Christine's Inspiration. James Pott & Co. 60 cents.
Zimmern, Helen. The Comedies of Carlo Goldoni. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.

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